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PUBLIC PAPERS,

Of the Year 1809.

CHAPTER I.

Palafox's Proclamation to the Arragonese.

Dec. 3, 1808.

THE country demands great sacrifices. She calls us to her assistance; she sees no other defenders but her children; we are her only support. We should violate our duty to her, and to ourselves, did we not employ our arms and risk our lives and property, in order to save her. Noble Arragonese! brave soldiers! ever ready to shed your blood to defend her and your king, it is unnecessary for me to remind you of sacred duties which you have never forgotten; but the important charge which you have confided to me, and my anxious desire to fulfil my duty, and to make a just return to your attachment, do not permit me to leave unemployed any means that may contribute to deliver you from those perfidious wretches who, already setting themselves in opposition to our determinations, already indifferent to the grand cause which we are defending, give utterance to sentiments little conformable to our tried loyalty. I therefore ordain and command:—1. That all the inhabitants of this city, of every rank and condition, shall consider themselves bound to devote to its defence their persons, property, and lives: the

1809.

rich and great lending a helping hand to the poor, fostering and assisting them, contributing to cover their nakedness, and to enable them to maintain their respective posts; thus performing a sacred duty, enjoined by natural affection, and recommended by the holy religion which we profess; and, at the same time, remunerating them for the zeal with which they defend their lives, their estates, and their common country. Should any man be so unnatural as to disown their obligation, he shall be fined in proportion to the magnitude of his offence, and the amount of the fine shall be appropriated to the subsistence of the army.—2. That such towns as do not contribute all in their power to the relief of our present necessities, shall be treated as enemies to our king, whose sovereign rights we defend, and their inhabitants of every rank shall be punished as traitors.—3. That every individual of the army of reserve, and the recruits of Arragon, already enrolled and regimented, who shall not join his corps within the space of six days thereof, shall be treated as a deserter in time of war, and as such shall suffer the pains of the law.—4. That the Alcades shall scrupulously examine

(P) mine

nine the soldiers in their respective wards, who may not have so joined, and make a return of their names and the corps they belong to; and that the justices of the kingdom of Arragon do, under the responsibility of person and property, transmit an exact list of all the individuals of their jurisdiction, who have served in the army, distinguishing the cavalry from the infantry, and remarking their state of health and personal vigour.—5. That all who profess want of confidence in the chiefs of the people or the army, who make pasquinades, excite riots or disturbances, shall be immediately apprehended, and carried before the newly-appointed judge of the police, Don Santiago Penicela, who will pass judgment according to the times and critical circumstances in which the country is placed, and suitable to their crimes; imposing the punishment of death, he shall consult me.—6. That all the measures adopted shall be obeyed with religious respect, since they are all directed to the good of the country, which will recompence in more happy times the sacrifices we make, and which are so pleasing to God and the celestial protectress who guards us.—7. That all the houses shall be well supplied with cisterns and vessels of water, in order to be ready to assist in extinguishing any fire which may occur: and that the Alcaldes de Barrio shall in particular superintend this important preparation.—8. That the entrance and departure of persons by the gates shall be watched with the greatest care, recollecting that the enemy even assume our dress, and resort to every artifice, because they do not trust entirely to their force, though greatly superior in numbers.—9. That precisely three

days shall be allowed for the departure of all the women, old men arrived at sixty, and all the boys not able to carry cartridges, with moderate equipages, for whose convenience orders have been issued to all the towns and villages, to receive them with kindness, to supply their wants.—10. That all Frenchmen, who may happen to be within the city, shall be presented to the judge of the police, in order to be removed without the walls. All the women and children of the same nation shall be removed with their husbands and fathers; as also all the prisoners and deserters from the enemy's army, to places appointed for their reception.—11. To prevent those persons, whose virtue is respected by every catholic from being exposed to insult, I permit the nuns to proceed to occupy other convents, without the limits of the city and suburbs, where they may have an opportunity of devoting themselves, without interruption, to their holy exercises.

PRUSSIA.

Letter of the King to the Magistrates of Berlin.

24th Dec. 1808.

Worthy, beloved, and faithful subjects; my provinces being evacuated by the French, my attention is now directed to the accomplishment of my heartfelt wish of returning to my capital of Berlin, with the queen my spouse, and my family—an object which I have by all possible means endeavoured to attain since the conclusion of peace. I have given orders that the constituted authorities shall leave this place for Berlin, as soon as the districts on the other side of the Vistula have begun to breathe a little

little from the effect of the heavy burthens they have sustained in furnishing carriages and supplies, both before and during the evacuation of the country. This short interval I shall employ in a journey to St. Petersburg, in consequence of the repeated friendly and urgent invitations, both verbally and by letter, of his majesty the emperor of Russia. I shall expedite my journey, and hope, within a few weeks, to revisit my provinces on the other side of the Vistula, to which I owe so many proofs of exemplary fidelity; and I shall in particular hasten my return to Berlin, to testify to my subjects of that city my gratitude for their firmness and good conduct, and to assure them of my attachment and satisfaction. I inform you hereof, and command you to notify the same to my loving and faithful citizens of that city; and I am your loving sovereign,

FREDERICK WILLIAM.

CAPTURE OF CAYENNE.—Capitulation proposed by Victor Hugues, Officer of the Legion of Honour, Commissioner of his Majesty the Emperor and King, Commander in Chief of Cayenne and French Guyana, and accepted by James Lucas Yeo, Post-Captain in his Britannic Majesty's Service, commanding the Combined Naval English and Portuguese Forces, and Manuel Marques, Knight of the military Orders of St. Benoit d'Avie, Lieut. Col. in Chief, and Director of the Corps of Artillery of Para, commanding the advanced Army of the Portuguese, dated Jan. 12th, 1809.

Although the advanced posts have been carried, and that the

commissioner of the emperor and king is reduced with his garrison to the town, he owes it to those sentiments of honour which have always distinguished him, to the valour and good conduct of the officers and soldiers under his command, to the attachment of the inhabitants of the colony for his majesty the emperor and king, to declare publicly, that he surrenders less to the force than to the destructive system of liberating all the slaves who should join the enemy, and of burning all the plantations and ports where there should be any resistance.—The commissioner of the emperor commanding in chief, after having witnessed the burning of several plantations, particularly his own, the most considerable of the colony, had attributed it at first to the casualties of war; and the disorganization of the gangs, and the liberation of the slaves appeared to him a momentary measure; but being assured in writing, that the English and Portuguese officers acted in virtue of the orders of his royal highness the Prince Regent, and wishing to save the colony from total destruction, and to preserve his august master's subjects, who had given him so many proofs of their attachment and fidelity, the commissioner of his imperial and royal majesty surrenders the colony to the forces of his royal highness the Prince Regent on the following conditions:—

Art. 1. The garrison shall march out with their arms and baggage and all the honours of war; the officers shall retain their side arms, and those of the staff their horses; the garrison shall lay down their arms, and engage not to serve against his royal highness and his allies during one year.—2. Vessels shall be furnished at the expence of his

his royal highness the Prince Regent, to carry the garrison, the officers civil and military, and all those employed in the service, with their families and effects, direct to France, with as little delay as possible.—3. A convenient vessel shall be furnished to convey to France the commissioner of the emperor commanding in chief, his family, his officers, his suite, and effects; the chief of the administration of the finances, the commander of the troops, the inspector and the commandant of artillery, with their families.—4. A convenient delay shall be granted to the officers who have property in the colony, to settle their affairs.—5. The arsenals, batteries, and every thing belonging to the artillery, the small arms and powder magazines, and the provision stores, shall be given by inventory, and in the state in which they are now, and the same shall be pointed out.—6. The slaves on both sides shall be disarmed, and sent to their respective plantations.—The French negroes, whom the commanders by sea and land of his royal highness the Prince Regent have engaged for the service during the war, and to whom, in virtue of their orders, they have given their freedom, shall be sent out of the colony, as they can only remain there in future an object of trouble and dissention.—The commanders engage, as they have promised, to solicit of his royal highness the Prince Regent the replacing of those slaves, as an indemnity in favour of the inhabitants to whom they belong.—7. The papers, plans, and other articles belonging to the engineer department, shall be equally given up.—8. the sick and wounded who are obliged to remain in the colony may leave it,

with all that belong to them, as soon as they are in a situation to do so; in the mean time they shall be treated as they have been hitherto.—9. Private property, of whatever nature or description, shall be respected, and the inhabitants may dispose of it as heretofore.—10. The inhabitants of the colony shall preserve their properties, and may reside there, conforming to the orders and forms established by the sovereign under which they remain; they shall be at liberty to sell their properties, and retire wherever it may suit them, without any obstacle.—11. The civil laws known in France under the title of the Napoleon code, and in force in the colony, shall be observed and executed until the peace between the two nations; the magistrates shall only decide on the interests of individuals, and differences connected with them in virtue of the said laws.—12. The debts acknowledged by individuals during or previous to the time fixed by the preceding article, shall be exacted agreeably to the basis determined by the same article.—13. The papers concerning the controul and matriculation of the troops shall be carried away by the quarter master.—14. Desirous of preserving the spice plantation, called La Gabrielle, in all its splendour and agriculture, it is stipulated that neither it, nor any of the plantation trees or plants, shall be destroyed, but that it shall be preserved in the state in which it is given up to the commanders of his royal highness the Prince Regent.—15. All the papers of the stores of inspection of the customs, or of any responsibility whatever, shall be deposited in the secretary's office, or in any other place that may be agreed on, to be referred to when

when there is occasion; the whole shall be under the seal of the two governments, and at the disposal of his imperial and royal majesty.—16. The present capitulation shall be written in the three languages, and signed by the three officers stipulating.—At the advanced post of Bourg, this 12th day of January, 1809.

VICTOR HUGUES,
(Signed) JAMES LUCAS YEO,
MANUEL MARQUES.

TREATY BETWEEN GREAT BRITAIN AND SPAIN.—Treaty of Peace, Friendship, and Alliance between his Britannic Majesty and his Catholic Majesty Ferdinand VII. Signed at London the 14th of Jan. 1809.

In the name of the Most Holy and Undivided Trinity.—The events which have taken place in Spain having terminated the state of hostility which unfortunately subsisted between the crowns of Great Britain and Spain, and united the arms of both against the common enemy, it seems good that the new relations which have been produced between two nations, now connected by common interest, should be regularly established and confirmed by a formal treaty of peace, friendship, and alliance: Wherefore his Majesty the King of the united kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, and the Supreme and Central Junta of Spain and the Indies, acting in the name and on the behalf of his Catholic Majesty, Ferdinand VII. have constituted and appointed; that is to say, his Majesty the King of the united kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, the right hon. George Canning, one of his Majesty's most honourable privy council, and his principal secretary of

state for foreign affairs; and the Supreme and Central Junta of Government of Spain and the Indies, acting in the name and on behalf of his Catholic Majesty Ferdinand VII. Don Juan Ruiz de Apodaca, Commander of Valaga and Algarga in the military order of Calatrava, rear-admiral of the navy, named by the Supreme and Central Junta of Government of Spain and the Indies, as envoy extraordinary and minister plenipotentiary of his Catholic Majesty Ferdinand VII. to his Britannic Majesty; their plenipotentiaries to conclude and sign a treaty of peace, friendship, and alliance; who, having communicated their respective full powers, have agreed to and concluded the following articles:—Article 1. There shall be between his Majesty the King of the united kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, and his Catholic Majesty Ferdinand VII. King of Spain and of the Indies thereunto appertaining, and between all their kingdoms, states, dominions, and subjects, a christian, stable, and inviolable peace, and a perpetual and sincere amity, and a strict alliance during the war against France; together with an entire and lasting oblivion of all acts of hostility done on either side, in the course of the late wars, in which they have been engaged against each other.—2. To obviate all complaints and disputes which might arise on the subject of prizes, captured posterior to the declaration published by his Britannic Majesty on the 4th of July of the last year, it has been mutually agreed, that the vessels and property taken posterior to the date of the said declaration, in any seas or ports of the world, without any exceptions, and without any regard either to time or place, shall be restored by both parties.

ties. And as the accidental occupation of any of the ports of the Peninsula by the common enemy, might occasion disputes respecting any vessels, which, in ignorance of such occupation, might direct their course to those ports from any other harbour, either of the Peninsula or the colonies; and as cases may occur in which Spanish inhabitants of the said ports or provinces, so occupied by the enemy, may, with their property, endeavour to escape from his grasp; the high contracting parties have agreed that Spanish vessels not aware of the enemy's occupation of any harbour which they are desirous to enter, or such as may succeed in making their escape from any harbour so occupied, shall not be captured, nor themselves nor their cargo be considered as a good prize; but, on the contrary, that they shall meet with every help and assistance from the naval power of his Britannic Majesty.—3. His Britannic Majesty engages to continue to assist, to the utmost of his power, the Spanish nation in their struggle against the tyranny and usurpation of France, and promises not to acknowledge any other king of Spain and of the Indies thereunto appertaining, than his Catholic Majesty Ferdinand VII. his heirs, or such lawful successor as the Spanish nation shall acknowledge; and the Spanish government, in the name and on the behalf of his Catholic Majesty Ferdinand VII. engages never, in any case, to cede to France any part of the territories or possessions of the Spanish monarchy, in any part of the world.—4. The high contracting parties agree to make common cause against France; and not to make peace with that power except by common consent.—5. The present treaty shall be ratified by both parties, and the

exchange of the ratifications shall be made in the space of two months (or sooner if it can be done,) in London.—In witness whereof, we, the undersigned plenipotentiaries, have signed, in virtue of our respective full powers, the present treaty of peace, friendship, and alliance, and have sealed it with the seals of our arms.

(L. S.) GEORGE CANNING.

(L. S.) JUAN RUIZ DE APODACA.

Article I. Separate.—The Spanish Government engages to take the most effectual measures for the preventing of the Spanish squadrons in all the ports of Spain, as well as of the French squadron, taken in the month of June, and now in the harbour of Cadiz, from falling into the power of France. For which purpose his Britannic Majesty engages to co-operate by all means in his power.—The present separate Article shall have the same force and validity, as if it were inserted, word for word, in the treaty of peace, friendship, and alliance, signed this day, and shall be ratified at the same time.—In witness whereof, we, the undersigned plenipotentiaries, have signed, &c. &c.

(L. S.) GEORGE CANNING.

(L. S.) JUAN RUIZ DE APODACA.

Article II. Separate.—A treaty shall forthwith be negotiated, stipulating the amount and description of succours to be afforded by his Britannic Majesty, agreeable to the third article of the present treaty. The present separate article shall have the same force and validity, as if it were inserted, word for word, in the treaty of peace, friendship, and alliance, signed this day, and shall be ratified at the same time.—In witness whereof, we, the undersigned plenipotentiaries, have signed, &c. (L. S.) GEORGE CANNING.

(L. S.) JUAN RUIZ DE APODACA.

Additional

Additional Article.—The present circumstances not admitting of the regular negotiation of a treaty of commerce between the two countries, with all the care and consideration due to so important a subject, the high contracting parties mutually engage to proceed to such a negotiation as soon as it shall be practicable so to do, affording, in the mean time, mutual facilities to the commerce of the subjects of each other, by temporary regulations founded on principles of reciprocal utility.—The present additional articles shall have the same force and validity, &c. &c. (L. S.) GEORGE CANNING.
(L. S.) JUAN RUIZ DE APODACA.

HIS MAJESTY'S SPEECH.

January 19.

The parliament assembled this day, pursuant to his majesty's proclamation; when the Lord Chancellor read the following speech to both houses:

My lords, and gentlemen,

We have it in command from his majesty to state to you that his majesty has called you together, in perfect confidence that you are prepared cordially to support his majesty in the prosecution of the war, which there is no hope of terminating safely and honourably, except through vigorous and persevering exertion.—We are to acquaint you, that his majesty has directed to be laid before you, copies of the proposals for opening a negotiation, which were transmitted to his majesty from Erfurth; and of the correspondence which thereupon took place with the governments of Russia and of France; together with the declaration issued by his majesty's command on the termination of that correspondence.—His

majesty is persuaded, that you will participate in the feelings which were expressed by his majesty when it was required that his majesty should consent to commence the negotiation by abandoning the cause of Spain, which he had so recently and solemnly espoused.—We are commanded to inform you, that his majesty continues to receive from the Spanish government the strongest assurances of their determined perseverance in the cause of the legitimate monarchy, and of the national independence of Spain; and to assure you, that so long as the people of Spain shall remain true to themselves, his majesty will continue to them his most strenuous assistance and support.—His majesty has renewed to the Spanish nation, in the moment of its difficulties and reverses, the engagements which he voluntarily contracted at the outset of its struggle against the usurpation and tyranny of France; and we are commanded to acquaint you, that these engagements have been reduced into the form of a treaty of alliance; which treaty, so soon as the ratifications shall have been exchanged, his majesty will cause to be laid before you.—His majesty commands us to state to you, that while his majesty contemplated with the liveliest satisfaction the achievements of his forces in the commencement of the campaign in Portugal, and the deliverance of the kingdom of his ally from the presence and oppressions of the French army, his majesty most deeply regretted the termination of that campaign by an armistice and convention, of some of the articles of which his majesty has felt himself obliged formally to declare his disapprobation.—We are to express to you his majesty's reliance on your disposition to enable his majesty to continue
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the aid afforded by his majesty to the king of Sweden. That monarch derives a peculiar claim to his majesty's support in the present exigency of his affairs, from having concurred with his majesty in the propriety of rejecting any proposal for negotiation, to which the government of Spain was not to be admitted as a party.

Gentlemen of the house of commons,

We are commanded by his majesty to inform you, that he has directed the estimates of the current year to be laid before you. His majesty relies upon your zeal and affection to make such farther provision of supply as the vigorous prosecution of the war may render necessary; and he trusts that you may be enabled to find the means of providing such supply, without any great or immediate increase of the existing burthens upon his people.—His majesty feels assured, that it will be highly satisfactory to you to learn, that notwithstanding the measures resorted to by the enemy for the purpose of destroying the commerce and resources of his kingdom, the public revenue has continued in a course of progressive improvement.

My lords and gentlemen,

We are directed to inform you, that the measure adopted by parliament in the last session, for establishing a local militia, has been already attended with the happiest success, and promises to be extensively and permanently beneficial to the country. We have received his majesty's commands most especially to recommend to you, that duly weighing the immense interests which are at stake, in the war now carrying on, you should proceed,

with as little delay as possible, to consider of the most effectual measures for the augmentation of the regular army, in order that his majesty may be the better enabled, without impairing the means of defence at home, to avail himself of the military power of his dominions in the great contest in which he is engaged; and to conduct that contest, under the blessing of Divine Providence, to a conclusion compatible with the honour of his majesty's crown, and with the interests of his allies, of Europe, and of the world.

CORRESPONDENCE WITH THE RUSSIAN AND FRENCH GOVERNMENTS.—Presented to Parliament, January 20, 1809.

No. I. is a letter from Count Romanzoff to Mr. Canning, in which he says, that he sends a letter written by the emperors of Russia and France to the king of England: and states, that the emperors are willing to adopt all those bases of negotiation formerly proposed by England, namely, the *Uti Possidetis*.

No. II. "Letter from his majesty the emperor of all the Russias, and Buonaparte," dated Erfurth, Oct. 12, sets out with pretending to have an ardent wish for peace, and concludes thus: "We unite in intreating your majesty to listen to the voice of humanity, silencing that of the passions; to seek with the intention of arriving at that object, to conciliate all interests, and by that means to preserve all the powers which exist, and to insure the happiness of Europe and of this generation, at the head of which Providence has placed us.

(Signed) "ALEXANDER,
"NAPOLEON."

In No. VII. Mr. Canning writes to

to the Russian ambassador at Paris, dated Oct. 28, in answer to these letters. Here he says, that his majesty cannot reply directly to the emperor of Russia, without, at the same time, acknowledging titles which his majesty never acknowledged. He signifies his majesty's intention of communicating the proposal to the king of Sweden, and the existing government of Spain; and his majesty's desire that France may acknowledge the government of Spain as party to any negotiation.

The following note (No. XV.) we insert at full length, on account of its singularity and importance.

“ The undersigned has laid before the emperor his master, the note of his excellency Mr. Canning. If it were true that the evils of war were felt only on the Continent, certainly there would be little hope of attaining peace. The two emperors had flattered themselves that the object of their measure would not have been misinterpreted in London. Could the English ministry have ascribed it to weakness or necessity, when every impartial statesman must recognize, in the spirit of peace and moderation by which it is dictated, the characteristics of power and true greatness? France and Russia can carry on the war so long as the court of London shall not recur to just and equitable dispositions! and they are resolved to do so. How is it possible for the French government to entertain the proposal which has been made to it, of admitting to the negotiation the *Spanish insurgents*?—*What would the English government have said, had it been proposed to them to admit the Catholic insurgents of Ireland?* France, without having any treaties with them, has been in communication with them, has made them promises, and has frequently sent them

succours. Could such a proposal have found place in a note, the object of which ought to have been, not to irritate, but to endeavour to effect a mutual conciliation and good understanding? England will find herself under a strange mistake, if, contrary to the experience of the past, she still entertains the idea of contending successfully upon the continent against the armies of France. What hope can she now have, especially as France is irrevocably united with Russia? The undersigned is commanded to repeat the proposal, to admit to the negotiation all the allies of the king of England; whether it be the king who reigns in the Brazils; whether it be the king who reigns in Sweden; or whether it be the king who reigns in Sicily; and to take for the basis of the negotiation the *uti possidetis*. He is commanded to express the hope that, not losing sight of the inevitable results of the force of states, it will be remembered, that between great powers there is no solid peace, but that which is at the same time equal and honourable for all parties. The undersigned requests his excellency Mr. Canning to accept the assurances of his highest consideration.

(Signed) “CHAMPAGNY.”

On the ninth of December Mr. Canning writes to Count Romanzoff, that his majesty would not consent to commence a negotiation for general peace, by the previous abandonment of the cause of the Spanish nation, and of the legitimate monarchy of Spain.

A note from Mr. Canning to Mr. Champagny, dated ninth December, says, that his majesty is determined not to abandon the cause of the Spanish nation, and of the legitimate monarchy of Spain; and the pretension of France to exclude from the

the negotiation the central and supreme government, acting in the name of his Catholic majesty, Ferdinand VII., is one which his majesty could not admit, without acquiescing in an usurpation which has no parallel in the history of the world.—Champagny, in his answer to the above note, merely says, he will transmit it to the emperor his master.

A letter from Count Romanzoff to Mr. Canning says, the emperors have no objection to admit to the negotiation the sovereigns in alliance with England; but cannot admit the plenipotentiaries of the Spanish insurgents; that the emperor of Russia has acknowledged king Joseph Napoleon, and will not separate his interests from those of the French emperor. The emperor then offers to negotiate on the basis of the *uti possidetis*.

The following elegant tribute to the memory of Sir John Moore has been paid by the commander-in-chief:

GENERAL ORDERS.

“ The benefits derived to an army from the example of a distinguished commander do not terminate at his death; his virtues live in the recollection of his associates, and his fame remains the strongest incentive to great and glorious actions. In this view, the commander-in-chief, amidst the deep and universal regret which the death of Lieutenant-general Sir John Moore has occasioned, recalls to the troops the military career of that illustrious officer for their instruction and imitation. Sir John Moore, from his youth, embraced the profession with the feelings and sentiments of a soldier; he felt that a perfect knowledge, and

an exact performance of the humble but important duties of a subaltern officer are the best foundations for subsequent military fame; and his ardent mind, while it looked forward to those brilliant achievements for which it was formed, applied itself with energy and exemplary assiduity to the duties of that station. In the school of regimental duty, he obtained that correct knowledge of his profession so essential to the proper direction of the gallant spirit of the soldier; and he was enabled to establish a characteristic order and regularity of conduct, because the troops found in their leader a striking example of the discipline which he enforced on others. Having risen to command, he signalized his name in the West Indies, in Holland, and in Egypt. The unremitting attention with which he devoted himself to the duties of every branch of his profession obtained him the confidence of Sir Ralph Abercrombie; and he became the companion in arms of that illustrious officer, who fell at the head of his victorious troops, in an action which maintained our national superiority over the arms of France. Thus Sir John Moore at an early period obtained, with general approbation, that conspicuous station in which he gloriously terminated his useful and honourable life. In a military character, obtained amidst the dangers of climate, the privations incident to service, and the sufferings of repeated wounds, it is difficult to select any one point as a preferable subject for praise: it exhibits, however, one feature so particularly characteristic of the man, and so important to the best interests of the service, that the commander-in-chief is pleased to mark it with his peculiar approbation. The life of Sir John Moore was spent among the troops.

troops. During the season of repose his time was devoted to the care and instruction of the officer and soldier; in war he courted service in every quarter of the globe. Regardless of personal considerations, he esteemed that to which his country called him, the post of honour, and by his undaunted spirit, and unconquerable perseverance, he pointed the way to victory. His country, the object of his latest solicitude, will rear a monument to his lamented memory: and the commander-in-chief feels he is paying the best tribute to his fame by thus holding him forth as an example to the army.

By order of his Royal Highness
the commander-in-chief,

HARRY CALVERT, Adj.-Gen.
Horse Guards, Feb. 1, 1809.

SPANISH REVOLUTION.

Decree of the Supreme Junta, dated
Feb. 7, 1809.

His majesty, considering that the French, in the unjust and barbarous war which they wage against Spain, pay no regard to any principle of the laws of nations—that they shamelessly violate the most solemn treaties, as has been verified with respect to the capitulation of Madrid, since, contrary to the stipulations therein made, they imprison, persecute, and banish peaceable citizens and respectable magistrates, imposing, at the same time, the most disgraceful punishments on other unfortunate persons on the slightest suspicions and most frivolous pretexts—Seeing that they continue every where to defile the sanctity of temples, the purity of domestic honour, and to trample on the rights of humanity—that acts of the most

atrocious kind, and which make human nature shudder, are daily heard of, such as the death of a nun, who threw herself into a well, to avoid the brutality of a Frenchman; the cruel murder of a mother, whose breasts were cut off in the act of giving suck to her son, by those monsters, who afterwards sabred her infant; and a number of other cases equally horrible; atrocities painful to write, dreadful to read, and degrading to endure;—finally, his majesty being convinced, that still to observe the laws of natural equity with those who respect no law whatever, would not be moderation and justice, but the most culpable indifference and the basest meanness, has resolved to repress and punish those crimes. Calling therefore all Europe to witness the awful necessity which has compelled him to resort to the means of retaliation, by returning on a sanguinary banditti violence for violence, he hereby decrees:

1. That no quarter shall be given to any French soldier, officer, or general; who may be made prisoner in any town or district, in which acts contrary to the laws of war have been committed by the enemy, but that such persons shall be immediately put to the sword, as an example to their companions and a satisfaction to outraged humanity.

2. That the present decree shall be printed, proclaimed, and distributed in the Spanish armies, in order to its due execution. You are also required to make arrangements for the fulfilment of the same.

The Marquis of ASTORGA,
Vice-President.

MARTIN DE GARAY.

Done in the Royal Al-cazan of
Seville, Feb. 7, 1809.

TURKEY.

TURKEY.

Treaty between Great Britain and the Sublime Porte.

1. From the moment of the signature of the present treaty, all acts of hostility shall cease, between England and Turkey, and the prisoners on both sides, in consequence of this happy peace, shall be at liberty in thirty-one days after the signature of this treaty, or sooner, if possible.

2. If there should be any places belonging to the Sublime Porte, in possession of Great Britain, they are to be restored, and given up to the Sublime Porte, with all their cannon, ammunition, and other effects, in the same condition in which they were found when occupied by the English; and this restitution must take place within thirty-one days after the signature of the present treaty.

3. If there shall be effects or property appertaining to English merchants, or sequestered under the jurisdiction of the Sublime Porte, that shall be all returned and restored to the proprietors—and in like manner, if there shall be effects, property, or vessels, appertaining to the merchants and subjects of the Sublime Porte, under sequestration at Malta, or in the other isles and states of his Britannic majesty, they shall, in like manner, be entirely returned and restored to the proprietors.

4. The articles of the treaty stipulated in the Turkish year 1086, in the moon Djemaz ul Akber, as also the article relative to the commerce of the Black Sea, and the other privileges (midjiazals) equally established by the acts of subsequent periods, shall be observed and maintained as heretofore, and as if they had not suffered any interruption.

5. In consequence of the good treatment and favour granted by the Sublime Porte to the English merchants with respect to their merchandize and property, and every thing of which they may stand in need—and, in like manner, with regard to all objects tending to facilitate the commerce, England shall reciprocally grant entire favour, and an amicable treatment to the flags, subjects, and merchants of the Sublime Porte, who shall hereafter frequent the states of his Britannic majesty.

6. The tariff of the customs, which was latterly fixed at Constantinople, at the old rate of three per cent. and especially the article which respects internal commerce, shall be constantly observed as they have been regulated. To this England promises to conform.

7. The ambassador of his majesty the king of Great Britain shall fully enjoy the honours enjoyed by other nations at the Sublime Porte; and reciprocally the ambassadors of the Sublime Porte to the court of London shall fully enjoy all the honours which shall be granted to the ambassadors of Great Britain.

8. It shall be permitted to name Schabinders (Consuls) at Malta, and in the states of his Britannic majesty, wherever it may be necessary to inspect the affairs and interests of the Turkish merchants; and the same treatment and privileges which are allowed to English consuls residing in the Ottoman states, shall be rigidly observed towards the Schabinders of the Sublime Porte.

9. The English consuls and ambassadors shall, according to custom, employ such drogman as they may have occasion for; but as it has been before decreed, by common consent, the Sublime Porte will not grant the
berat

berat of drogman in favour of individuals who do not exercise that function in the place of their destination. It is agreed, conformably to this principle, that henceforward the berat shall not be granted to any person of the rank of tradesman or banker, nor to any one who shall keep a shop or manufactory in the public market, or who shall be concerned in affairs of this kind; and he shall not be appointed by the English consuls from among the subjects of the Sublime Porte.

10. The English patent of protection shall not be granted to any person from among the dependents or merchants, subjects of the Sublime Porte, nor shall there be delivered to them any passport from the ambassadors or consuls, without the permission of the Sublime Porte.

11. As it has been at all times forbidden for ships of war to enter the canals of Constantinople, viz. in the Strait of the Dardanelles, or that of the Black Sea, and as that ancient rule of the Ottoman empire must be henceforward observed in time of peace, by all powers whatever, the British court promise to conform to this principle.

12. The ratification of this present treaty of peace, between the high contracting powers, shall be exchanged at Constantinople in the space of ninety-one days from the date of the present treaty, or sooner, if possible.

REVOLUTION IN SWEDEN.

We have to record another political revolution. The king of Sweden has been deposed by his subjects; and his uncle, the duke of Sudermania, has assumed the government of the country as regent. The revolution took place on the 18th of March. The king was arrested as he was

about to depart from his country residence; and when the last advices came away, he was a close prisoner at Stockholm. When his majesty was first surrounded by a guard, he drew his sword, but was soon overpowered, and prevented from making resistance. When the person of the king was secured, the following proclamation was issued:

Proclamation issued by the Duke of Sudermania on his assuming the Government.

“ We Charles, by the grace of God, hereditary prince of Sweden, the Goths, Vandals, &c. duke of Sudermania, grand admiral, &c. &c. do declare, That, under existing circumstances, his majesty is incapable to act, or to conduct the important affairs of the nation: We have, therefore, (being the nearest and only branch of the family of age), been induced, for the time being, as administrator of the kingdom, to take the reins of government into our hands, which, with the help of the Almighty, we will conduct, so that the nation may regain peace, both at home and abroad, and that trade and commerce may revive from their languishing state.—Our inviolable intention is, to consult with the States on the means to be taken to render the future time happy to the people of Sweden. We invite and command, therefore, all the inhabitants of our nation, our forces by sea and land, and also the civil officers of all degrees, to obey us, as our real intention and their own welfare demand. We recommend you all to the protection of God Almighty.

Done at Stockholm palace, the 13th of March, 1809.

(Signed) “ CHARLES,
“ C. LAGERBRING.”

CARLSTADT.

March 10.

An alarming occurrence took place here within these last few days: Colonel d'Addeparre, who commanded the troops on the frontiers of Norway, after having seduced them, marched in here on the night of the 6th inst. and demanded of the burgomaster quarters for his troops, which was refused; in consequence of which, he made application to Count Rosen, the governor, stating, that if his request was not granted, the troops he commanded should enforce it, and take quarters wherever they could find them. Count Rosen still persisting in the refusal, he was ordered under arrest, as was the burgomaster; and the troops forcibly obtained what their leader had demanded. Colonel d'Addeparre, at the head of 2,000 regular troops, and about the same number of peasantry, are now on their march to Stockholm, to demand of the king to call a diet of the states, as well as to obtain payment of the troops under his command.

Proclamation of the Commander of the Troops stationed in Weimland.

A considerable number of soldiers have taken up arms, in order to march to the capital, and relieve our common, now unfortunate, and dismembered native country.—As all our fellow-citizens must be sensible that our views are such as public spirit and honour dictate to virtuous minds, we cannot be mistaken in our implicit confidence, that our brethren in arms, and our unarmed fellow-citizens, will not form any incorrect opinion of our sentiments and views. They are merely these, that the states of the realm and our legislators shall be at liberty to assemble and delibe-

rate uncontrouled on the means of restoring the prosperity of our suffering country. We have solemnly contracted the engagement to lay at their feet the arms which we have taken up to procure them freedom. We will form a wall round the hall where Swedish legislators hold their deliberations, which no power upon earth shall be able to beat down. We have solemnly contracted the engagement to destroy all such as shall still endeavour to prefer foreign connections to the internal welfare and tranquillity of Sweden. Sweden's German dominions are delivered up to the enemy, and Finland, the native soil of a noble and gallant people, is lost. We have solemnly contracted the engagement, that not a single inch more of the Swedish territory shall be given up to the enemy. Sweden's trade and mines are ruined and deserted; Sweden's youth are taken from agricultural pursuits, in order to be destroyed by sickness and the sword. The burthens laid on agriculture are such that they cannot be borne any longer. Grinding taxes are exacted without mercy; desolation and misery are spreading wide and far, and threaten universal ruin. We have contracted the solemn engagement, that the fathers of the country shall enjoy full liberty to restore the welfare and prosperity of the country. May the higher and lower states of the commonweal also join heart and hand to assert the freedom of the country; and thus, by harmony and well-concerted efforts, insure success to our enterprize and views. May the fathers of the country offer peace and amity to our neighbours, but accompany this offer with the assurance that every Swedish hero will rather be buried under the ruins of his country, than suffer a single inch of Swedish ground to be taken

taken by our enemies, or transferred to them. Our ally, Great-Britain, shall learn to appreciate and value a nation, which knows how to break its fetters, and rescue liberty from its chains; France shall learn to respect a people anxious to rival her military prowess; the rulers of Russia and Denmark, incessantly engaged in pursuits tending to promote the prosperity of their people, will not disturb the peace and tranquillity of a nation which merely desires to live or die independent. We have seen with sorrow the most important concerns of Sweden managed in a manner which was as destitute of any well-conceived plan as of success. — Might not the remaining strength of Sweden have been wasted by folly? but if directed by wisdom, may it not be employed for the real benefit of the country? Such are our wishes for our country, and we shall readily sacrifice our lives to obtain their fulfilment. It is of the utmost importance for Sweden that every Swede should at length be allowed to return to a peaceful home, as far as it can be done without any disparagement to the honour and independence of Sweden. The frontiers of the kingdom are for a short time left without defence, on account of our departure from thence; but should the enemy, contrary to his solemn promise, avail himself of our absence to attack them, we shall speedily return, take a severe revenge, and convince him of the difference of a warfare carried on by personal hatred of the rulers, and a war urged by a nation, anxious and determined to assert its independence. We implicitly confide, that all military commanders will readily co-operate with us, to secure, by speedy and vigorous exertion, the restoration of our lost prosperity, in the destruction of our

foreign foes. To conclude; we venture to express the wish, that our beloved countrymen, and fellow-citizens of every rank and description may suspend their judgment on all further proceedings, until the decision of the states of the realm shall be known.

(Signed)

“The Commander of the Troops stationed in Weimland.”

Letters Patent and Proclamation of his Royal Highness the Duke of Sudermania, regent of the Swedish kingdom, to all the estates of the realm, concerning a general diet to be held on the 1st of May, in the present year: Given at the the king's palace at Stockholm, March 14, 1809.

We, Charles, by the grace of God, assure you, estates of the realm, counts, barons, archbishops, bishops, nobles, clergy, burghers of cities, and commonalty, of our particular favour, gracious intentions, and kind affection, under the protection of Almighty God. Since we, according to our gracious proclamation of the 13th instant, have found ourselves called upon to take the reins of government as regent, in order to save our beloved native country from unavoidable destruction, we have considered it of the highest importance to deliberate with the states of the realm, upon the means which may procure and confirm the future happiness of the Swedish nation. We wish, therefore, and command that all the states of the realm may assemble in the capital of the kingdom before the 1st of May next, and that not only the nobility may regulate their conduct by the laws for the house of nobles given on the 6th of June, 1626, by the king Gustavus

tavus Adolphus, of glorious memory, &c. and revived and confirmed by king Gustavus III. on the 9th of November, 1778, but that the other states, which, as usual, send deputies, may observe the following order: From the clergy are expected to appear the archbishop, every bishop from his diocese, the first pastor in Stockholm, together with so many from each diocese as usual, and of the other states, as many as usual, all provided with necessary letters of deputation, in order that we may be able to begin the diet, and after its being fortunately finished, give you permission to return every one to his province. Which every one must respectfully observe, and we are, &c. &c.

Address of his Royal Highness the Duke of Sudermania, to the people of Sweden, dated Stockholm, March 15, 1809.

His Royal Highness the Duke of Sudermania deems it right, and conformable to the duties of his high station, publicly to lay before the Swedish people, the motives and causes which produced the important change, which has lately taken place in the government of this country. The archives of the state contain a great variety of documents, which will prove the necessity of that measure, both to the present age and posterity. For this long time past the public opinion condemned a system of warfare, which so little suits a country, the commercial concerns of which claim that neutrality, which her fortunate geographical situation, that seems to secure Sweden, demands, and which was sacrificed by the government. As early as 1805, Sweden, joined by other powers, entered into a war with France,

which from local circumstances was then, however, confined to the loss of her trade with nearly all the states of Europe; a loss which, although not to be compared with that she has since sustained, was yet of great moment. Soon after differences with Prussia arose, which, however, were not attended with consequences equally important. In 1807, the share which Sweden took in the coalition against France became momentous, and its influence on the dearest interests of the country more detrimental. Swedish Pomerania was occupied by foreign troops, and Stralsund besieged; yet one prospect of more fortunate times remained included.

A continental peace was on the point of being concluded at Tilsit, and Sweden invited to form one of the contracting parties; Sweden refused; and in consequence of this refusal she was compelled to fight France, and her numerous allies, single-handed, on the continent of Europe, and the siege of Stralsund was carried on with increased vigour; Even during that siege, nay, after the conclusion of the convention, which stipulated the evacuation of Pomerania and Rugen by our troops, offers of peace were made by the enemy, and rejected; and the German possessions of Sweden, the last remains of the conquests of Gustavus Adolphus the Great, were lost. Sweden had, however, to sustain losses still more severe. The winter of 1807, and the following year, serious apprehensions arose of an impending rupture with our neighbours, both on the east and west of our empire. These apprehensions and dangers might have been warded off a few months before by the Swedish government, by its accession to the peace of Tilsit; a peace which Sweden was not

not prevented from concluding by her only ally, which was offered on terms by no means irreconcilable with the public interest of Sweden. The war broke out in Finland; and its gallant defenders, at the end of a severe and honourable conflict, with an enemy far superior in number, were obliged to give up to him their beloved country. This misfortune, the most calamitous event which has befallen Sweden for centuries past, might have been avoided, if the powerful preparations of defence, which the situation and nature of the country admitted, had been conducted with wisdom and skill, and if the plans of resistance, no sooner adopted than relinquished, had been conceived and carried into effect, with unity and firmness. Finland, which, in point of population and intrinsic value, formed one-third part of the Swedish empire, was lost, and this loss bore with the most destructive pressure on the two remaining thirds. In this state of affairs, the means of waging war against such numerous enemies could not prove sufficient for any length of time, and no other resource was left than to burden with new taxes a people unable to bear them. The public necessities increased in proportion as the means and resources of the state were destroyed. Trade and navigation were at a stand; our mines and agriculture were unproductive from want of hands; universal ruin was spreading wide and far; and yet it was universally known that his royal majesty had again repeated his former firm and unalterable determination not to conclude a peace with the present government of France, without which, however, no reconciliation with Denmark and Russia could take place. In this situation of affairs a considerable part of the

1809.

western army formed a resolution to march to the capital with the patriotic view which appears by the proclamation issued on their part. Similar movements took place among the rest of the Swedish troops, and it was in this critical position his royal majesty came to the unfortunate resolution of leaving Stockholm, and directing his family, and several officers of the state, to follow him. The garrison was ordered to file off, and it was intended to assemble an army in the south, to oppose the troops who were approaching from the north and west. Two distinct governments were thus to be formed, two armies to be assembled, and a civil war was to fill up the measure of our calamities and distress. The king's departure was, however, postponed until the 13th of March, at noon. An universal consternation prevailed. The most respectful remonstrances against his majesty's determination were rejected, and no other means remained even to secure the safety of the king's own person, than to prevent him from carrying his unfortunate resolve into effect. In these circumstances all the officers of state, in conjunction with the states of the empire, who were present in Stockholm, expressed to his royal highness the constitutional wish that he might take the reins of government into his hands; a wish to which his royal highness, notwithstanding his advanced age, thought himself in duty bound to accede, confiding that this step will be viewed in its proper light by every honest patriotic Swede.

SIR JOHN MOORE. The following Extract from the last letter of General Sir John Moore has been printed in pursuance of the order

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of

of the house of commons: April 1809.

Extract of a letter from Lieutenant-general Sir John Moore, to Viscount Castlereagh; dated Corunna, Jan. 13.

“ Situated as this army is at present, it is impossible for me to detail to your lordship the events which have taken place since I had the honour to address you from Astorga, on the 31st of December: I have therefore determined to send to England Brigadier-general Charles Stewart, as the officer best qualified to give you every information you can want, both with respect to our actual situation and the events which have led to it. Your lordship knows, that had I followed my own opinion, as a military man, I should have retired with the army from Salamanca. The Spanish armies were then beaten; there was no Spanish force to which we could unite, and I was satisfied that no efforts would be made to aid us, or to favour the cause in which they were engaged. I was sensible, however, that the apathy and indifference of the Spaniards would never have been believed; that had the British been withdrawn, the loss of the cause would have been imputed to their retreat, and it was necessary to risk this army to convince the people of England, as well as the rest of Europe, that the Spaniards had neither the power nor the inclination to make any efforts for themselves. It was for this reason that I made the march to Sahagun. As a diversion it succeeded; I brought the whole disposable force of the French against this army, and it has been allowed to follow me, without a single movement being made to favour my retreat. The people of the Gallicias,

though armed, made no attempt to stop the passage of the French through the mountains. They abandoned their dwellings at our approach, drove away their carts, oxen, and every thing that could be of the smallest aid to the army. The consequence has been, that our sick have been left behind; and when our horses or mules failed, which on such marches, and through such a country, was the case to a great extent, baggage, ammunition, stores, &c. and even money, were necessarily destroyed or abandoned. I am sorry to say, that the army, whose conduct I had such reason to extol on its march through Portugal, and on its arrival in Spain, has totally changed its character since it began to retreat. I can say nothing in its favour, but that when there was a prospect of fighting the enemy, the men were then orderly and seemed pleased and determined to do their duty. In front of Villa Franca the French came up with the reserve, with which I was covering the retreat of the army; they attacked it at Calcabellos. I retired, covered by the 95th regiment, and marched that night to Herresias, and from thence to Nogales and Lugo, where I had ordered the different divisions which proceeded to halt and collect. At Lugo, the French again came up with us. They attacked our advanced posts on the 6th and 7th, and were repulsed in both attempts, with little loss on our side. I heard from the prisoners taken, that three divisions of the French army were come up, commanded by Marshal Soult; I therefore expected to be attacked on the morning of the 8th. It was my wish to come to that issue; I had perfect confidence in the valour of the troops, and it was only by crippling the enemy that we could hope either to retreat or to embark

embark unmolested. I made every preparation to receive the attack, and drew out the army in the morning to offer battle. This was not Marshal Soult's object. He either did not think himself sufficiently strong, or he wished to play a surer game by attacking us on our march, or during our embarkation. The country was intersected, and his position too strong for me to attack with an inferior force. The want of provisions would not enable me to wait longer; I marched that night; and in two forced marches by advancing for six or eight hours in the rain, I reached Betanzos on the 10th instant. At Lugo, I was sensible of the impossibility of reaching Vigo, which was at too great a distance, and offered no advantages to embark in the face of an enemy. My intention was then to have retreated to the peninsula of Betanzos, where I hoped to find a position to cover the embarkation of the army in Ares or Redes Bays; but having sent an officer to reconnoitre it, by his report I was determined to prefer this place. I gave notice to the admiral of my intention, and begged that the transports might be brought to Corunna; had I found them here on my arrival, on the 11th, the embarkation would easily have been effected, for I had gained several marches on the French. They have now come up with us, the transports are not arrived; my position in the front of this place is a very bad one; and this place, if I am forced to retire into it, is commanded within musket-shot, and the harbour will be so commanded by cannon on the coast, that no ship will be able to lay in it. In short, my lord, General Stewart will inform you how critical our situation is. It has been recommended to me to make a proposal

to the enemy, to induce him to allow us to embark quietly; in which case he gets us out of the country soon, and this place, with its stores, &c. complete; that otherwise we have the power to make a long defence, which must cause the destruction of the town. I am averse to make any such proposal, and am exceedingly doubtful if it would be attended with any good effect; but whatever I resolve on this head, I hope your lordship will rest assured, that I shall accept no terms that are in the least dishonourable to the army or to the country. I find I have been led into greater length, and more detail, than I thought I should have had time for; I have written under interruptions, and my mind much occupied with other matter. My letter, written so carelessly, can only be considered as private. When I have more leisure, I shall write more correctly; in the mean time, I rely on General Stewart for giving your lordship the information and detail which I have omitted. I should regret his absence, for his services have been very distinguished; but the state of his eyes makes it impossible for him to serve, and this country is not one in which cavalry can be of much use. If I succeed in embarking the army, I shall send it to England; it is quite unfit for further service until it has been refitted, which can best be done there.

JOHN MOORE."

REPORT RELATING TO THE DUTCH
COMMISSIONERS.

Your committee, having derived from the minutes of evidence and proceedings of the committees of public expenditure of the preceding sessions referred to them by the
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house, some material information respecting the establishment and the transactions of the commissioners for the sale, management, and disposal of Dutch property, captured or detained on the occasion of the commencement of hostilities with Holland, in consequence of its invasion by the French, have pursued the investigation of that subject, and proceed to report upon it.—The commissioners, who were five in number, were appointed in 1795 under the authority of the 21st clause of the 35th Geo. 3, c. 80; and their commission, after reciting in the words of the act, that the cargoes of Dutch ships, detained or brought in, might perish or be greatly injured, if some provision was not made respecting the same, authorizes the commissioners to take such ships and cargoes under their care, and to manage, sell, and dispose of the same according to such instructions as they should from time to time receive from the king in council.—The lords of the privy council, in their instructions dated 13 June 1795, direct the commissioners generally as to the conduct of their transactions, and require them to keep minutes of all their proceedings, and “to keep accounts in such form as the lords commissioners of the treasury shall direct or approve.” No instructions appear to have proceeded from the board of treasury, and the commissioners represent themselves to have undertaken their office, without having come to any understanding with any branch of the government respecting the manner of deriving their compensation or their services, or the amount of it. They state, that they were charged with the investigation of numerous claims to British and neutral property found

in the detained and captured vessels, and in many cases acted in a judicial character in this respect; that they received a separate and special commission to take the management of sundry Dutch vessels brought into Ireland; that they had to make arrangements with the East-India Company respecting cargoes directed to be sold by the company at their own sales; that they had to adjust many complicated accounts with their agents at the out-ports, and to settle the wages of the officers and crews both of the vessels of which the cargoes were sold by the East-India Company, and of those which were intrusted altogether to their own management, and that they found the duties of their office to be for some time extremely difficult and laborious. They observe, however, that their sales ceased, and their transactions were nearly brought to a close in July 1799, but that the final adjustment of them had been protracted partly by “small sales of remnants not completed till November 1801,” partly by some “property claimed in the court of admiralty not adjudged till July 1803,” partly by “unsettled accounts with the executor of the late king’s proctor, of which the balance was not paid till January last,” but chiefly by an important law-suit, commenced in 1797, which brought into question property to the amount of about 180,000*l*. The suit has within these few months terminated in their favour, and the commissioners now expect that in the course of the ensuing summer they shall close their transactions, and deliver in their accounts to government.—It appears by a paper dated 29th April, 1808, that the gross amount of the produce of the ships and of the ships and car-

goes sold (of which cargoes your committee perceive that much the larger part was sold by the East-India Company) was

L.1,937,064

The charges } were }	L631,239	
Commission } charged }	88,164	
Restitutions to claimants	69,988	
Grant to cap- tors	117,746	
	<hr/>	907,137

Leaving a net amount of	1,029,927
From which was further to be deducted on ac- count of loss on ships in debt (that is on ships the charges on which exceeded the proceeds) - - - -	52,657
Leaving at that time the estimated net sum of	<hr/> 977,269

—The chief part of the balance now in hand is invested in government or other securities, which run at interest. The sum of 900,000*l.* has been paid at sundry periods to government, and having been carried to the account of the consolidated fund, has been applied to the purposes prescribed by parliament.

Your committee now proceed to offer observations on a variety of points to which their attention has been called, referring to the appendix for a more detailed account of some of the circumstances which they shall notice. It has been already mentioned, that no agreement in respect to the mode or amount of remuneration was made at the time when the commissioners were appointed. The difficulty of ascertaining beforehand the degree of trouble to be incurred, and

the nature of the duties to be performed, may form, in some cases, a sufficient motive for suspending the determination of both the amount and manner of an allowance. But no circumstances have appeared which furnish a justification of the delay of no less than fourteen years, which in this instance has taken place. It belonged to the government, after the lapse of a moderate period, to take up the consideration of the remuneration due to the commissioners, with a view to it being submitted to parliament; and when the subject had manifestly escaped attention, the commissioners ought to have given notice of the omission. But they have to this day held no communication with any branch of the government on this question. Under these circumstances they had, in the judgment of your committee, no right to appropriate any sums to themselves as compensation; indeed the terms of their commission, already quoted, direct them to dispose of the Dutch property intrusted to them only “according to such instructions as they should receive from the king in council,” and the instructions accordingly given, since they merely authorize allowances to crews in payment of wages, do not appear to your committee in any degree to sanction such application of their funds. The 26th clause of 35 Geo. III. authorizes the payment of “the expences of the sales out of the proceeds;” but the term “expences” cannot, in the judgment of your committee, be construed to include the payment of remuneration to the commissioners, since neither the mode nor the amount of it had been sanctioned by the government. It appears, however, that the commissioners, at a very early period, pro-
ceeded

ceeded both to determine in the first instance for themselves the rate of compensation due, and also actually to apply it to their own use, intending to make mention of this point only on the final settlement of their affairs, though they have from time to time had to communicate with the secretary of the treasury on other matters, and have transmitted to the lords of the privy council some general statements. The compensation which they have taken has been a commission of 5 per cent. on the gross produce of the sales, a subject on which your committee will offer some further remarks towards the conclusion of this report. It has been charged on the principle of a mercantile transaction; but it is here observable, that they have deviated from the custom of merchants, by taking large sums for commission, before they had either received or paid over the whole net proceeds of the cargoes, on the gross produce of which the commission was charged, and also before they had rendered up their accounts.—Your committee deem it necessary to animadvert on the length of time which has been suffered to elapse without rendering any regular accounts and without their being called for by the government. The chief object of examination in such cases, is the detection and rectification of errors, and the recovery of sums improperly withheld from the public; but when any considerable period has passed, the elucidation of accounts is rendered difficult, as your committee have experienced in the course of the present investigation, and the recovery of money becomes a measure of harshness. The commissioner, on whom the financial department is said to have devolved, is lately dead: and the want of re-

collection observable in many parts of the annexed evidence, is a further exemplification of the inconvenience resulting from the long delay which has taken place. Your committee called for a copy of such statements of the transactions of the commissioners as had from time to time been delivered by them to the board of treasury. The chief paper furnished in return is dated 20th July 1796, being the copy of a report presented to the privy council, which was evidently furnished rather with a view of shewing the sum then deemed likely to accrue from the sale of Dutch property, than of submitting the transactions of the commissioners to examination. It is observable that although in this report, which is in a great measure an estimate, the total amount of the charges incurred is given, and several particulars composing them are specified, no mention of commission is made, though it was undoubtedly an item at that time sufficiently large to have been included in the enumeration; for under this head, the sum of 25,000*l.* had been then divided. This omission might lead to a supposition that no commission had been taken. In the case of successive sales of a similar kind made by merchants acting as factors, it is the custom to make up separate account-sales of the several cargoes, until the delivery of which the charge of commission is delayed, and also to render an annual account current, detailing all the receipts and payments of the year. If the transactions of the commissioners are to be considered as of a mercantile nature, the public ought not to be without the benefit of those checks upon the conduct of their agents which have been generally established among merchants. The
act

act authorizing the appointment of the commissioners, contains a clause "requiring" that they shall "cause the proceeds of their sales," after "payment of the duties and the expences," to be paid "into the bank of England, there to remain subject to such orders as his majesty, with the advice of his privy council, may from time to time think fit to give thereupon," or as the court of admiralty may think fit to give in the case of sales made under the authority of that court. Your committee expected that the cash of the commissioners would, in pursuance of this clause, have been kept solely at the bank; but they find that it was during the first year lodged only with a private banker, and that five private bankers have been occasionally employed, each of the commissioners having recommended that a temporary account should be opened with the banker with whom he was individually connected. The clause does not appear to have escaped the attention of the commissioners; but it is stated in the evidence, that they understood it to apply, not to all the proceeds of their sales as they arose, but to the surplus of the proceeds above the sums expected by them to be wanted for charges and current payments. They have retained a large balance of cash for these purposes; and they represent that they were obliged to do this, because another order of his majesty in council, for a supply of cash, would from time to time have been necessary, the money paid into the bank under the direction of the act being no longer subject to the call of the commissioners. They further state, that being authorized by the 23d clause of the 35 Geo. 3, c. 80, to restore all goods which should be proved to belong to neutrals, and having sold

most of such goods before the decision of the claims, they deemed it necessary to retain cash sufficient for this purpose. Your committee nevertheless cannot approve of the construction which the commissioners have given to the law. Their payments into the bank appear to have been large payments made with a view to their immediate transfer from thence into the exchequer; but the terms used in the act are, that the proceeds, after payment of the duty and expences of sale, were to be paid into the bank, "and remain there;" an expression which implies, that the cash was not merely to pass through the bank in its way to the exchequer, but was to be lodged in the bank as a place of safe custody, in order to await the direction of the privy council. The legislature, however, seems not to have anticipated the circumstances of certain sums being necessary to be withdrawn from the amount of the proceeds in hand, with a view both to the payment of charges and to the restitutions of property due to neutrals; and by not providing very specifically or conveniently for these objects, it has afforded some countenance to that interpretation of the law which has taken place. Your committee think, that the difficulty which opposed the adoption of a strict construction of the act, has been much overstated by the commissioners. At the commencement of their transactions, having no money in hand for current payments, they obtained an order of council, directing 25,000*l.* to be advanced to them in order to supply their immediate occasions, which sum was to be replaced by the subsequent proceeds of sales. They might afterwards have obtained successive orders of council for similar purposes, as well as for the satisfac-

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tion of claimants, without any great inconvenience, and in this case the lords of the privy council, would have had the opportunity of exercising their judgment as to the amount of the money proper to be placed at the disposal of the commissioners. A less objectionable mode of proceeding, though not conformable to the act, would have been to keep two accounts with the bank; the one, an account of money paid in under the act, and consequently subject only to the orders of the king in council; the other a separate account, subject to the controul of the commissioners. This expedient was resorted to after the first twelve months, but there was still no relinquishment of the practice of keeping a large balance with private bankers. On the supposition of any uncertainty as to the construction of the act, the subject ought to have been distinctly submitted to the lords of the privy council, in pursuance of their instructions, which had directed an application to themselves "in all cases of doubt or difficulty." Your committee are further of opinion, that if the act had been silent on this topic, the commissioners ought to have lodged their cash in the bank of England; and with a view to future cases, they think that it may be useful to suggest the following general reasons:—First, The public have an interest in thus preferring the bank, which is nearly similar to that which the commissioners may individually be supposed to have had in favouring their respective bankers. Indeed, since the report on the bank of England, made by the former committee on public expenditure, in which the average amount of the government balances in the bank was stated, that corporation has consented to

make some compensation for benefit of this kind, by affording to the public the loan of a considerable sum without interest. A general intention of employing the bank of England as the banker of the public, was then professed; and there can be no doubt that every preference shewn to the bank ought now to be considered as contributing to the liberal fulfilment of the general conditions of that arrangement, and even though not repaid by a specific compensation, as producing some corresponding advantages.—The more safe custody of the public money, intrusted to the commissioners, is another motive for lodging it in the Bank. Your committee conceive, that in the case of any loss arising out of the confidence which the commissioners have placed in private banks (an event in the present high state of credit, admitted to be extremely improbable) the commissioners would have been personally responsible. There is a third reason for this preference of the bank of England, which is not less important. The bank makes no allowance of interest, and shews no species of favour to the individual who places in it a considerable balance of cash. The public accountants, who keep cash in the bank, are therefore under no temptation to render their balances unnecessarily large, and are likely not to fail in the punctuality of their payments into the exchequer. Your committee have next to notice the too great magnitude of the balances of cash which appear in the cash-book of the commissioners, especially during a large part of the two first years, a subject not unconnected with the preceding observations. The paper in the appendix shews the balance to have been at the end of October, 1795, about 100,000*l.* and

and to have gradually risen by the end of April, 1796, to above 200,000*l.* Between which period and the end of May, 1797, it fell to about 50,000*l.* It fluctuated between about 80 and 120,000*l.* during the next four years, and between 50 and 100,000 during almost the whole succeeding period. Your committee have learnt by their inspection of the minute-book of the commissioners, that on the 25th of Feb. 1796, information was asked on the part of Mr. Pitt, whether any and what sum then in hand arising from the disposal of Dutch property, could be paid into the exchequer for the service of the current year; and that the commissioners replied, that no payment of consequence into the bank, according to the act of parliament, could be made, unless the treasury should first move the lords of the privy council, to direct the India company to pay a sum, amounting to about 118,000*l.*, then due from the company to the commissioners. At the time of this application, the balance in hand, the amount of which appears not to have been stated to the treasury, was about 190,000*l.* and it was never so low as 150,000*l.* in the course of the next fifteen months, a balance apparently much more than sufficient to allow of a payment of 50,000*l.* (the sum usually transferred at one time) into the bank under the act. The commissioners state to your committee, that demands upon them to the amount of not less than about 260,000*l.* were then out-standing; but this sum must obviously comprize the payments which were to be expected in a long succeeding period, for all the actual payments of the following 16 months (if a sum of 50,000*l.* paid to government, June 30, 1796, and of 40,000*l.* transferred on 31st of De-

cember, 1796, to the commissioners on account of commission, and of about 49,000*l.* paid to captors, which had been previously received from the East-India company for that purpose within the same period are excepted) amounted to only about 143,000*l.* according to the statement of the commissioners. These payments are undoubtedly no exact or very sure criterion of the sum which might fairly be considered on the 25th Feb. 1796, as likely to be wanted. They however furnish a strong presumption on the subject, and the circumstance of the 50,000*l.* just mentioned having been afforded to government, besides 40,000*l.* to the commissioners, a few months after the 25th of February, 1796, without producing a reduction of the balance below 150,000*l.* affords additional reason for thinking that there was no sufficient ground for objecting to make a payment into the exchequer, as desired. It is further observable, that the commissioners in their statement on this subject to your committee, omit to mention the sums which in Feb. 1796, they might expect to receive. The sums actually received in the first fifteen of the above-mentioned sixteen months, (exclusive of the 49,000*l.* which were both received from the East-India company, and paid over to captors as already stated) appear by a paper called for by your committee to have been more than equal to the sum paid in the corresponding period, if the before-mentioned payment of 50,000*l.* to government, and 40,000*l.* to the commissioners, are included. It is moreover observable, that a sum of 86,000*l.* to 665,000*l.* (which in conformity to a clause in 35 Geo. 3, ch. 80, was gathering interest at 4 per cent.) lay in the hands of the

the East-India company from the beginning of March, 1796, to March 1798, being the produce of sales made by them from time to time on account of the commissioners, a part of which fund, supposing a proper understanding on this subject to have subsisted between the commissioners, the government, and the East-India company, might have been convertible to the purpose of supplying the commissioners with the means of meeting some of the demands coming unexpectedly upon them. It is therefore on the whole presumable, that at the time of the application in question, a further augmentation of the large balance already in hand, rather than a diminution of it, was reasonably to be expected. Your committee cannot contemplate the magnitude of the balances as they appear in the cash-book of the commissioners, without expressing an opinion, that (supposing it allowable for the commissioners to adopt that construction of the act which they have given to it) these balances ought to have been made productive by investing a very large proportion of them in exchequer bills for the benefit of the public. Probably not less than between 40 and 50,000*l.* would have accrued in the way of interest from a due attention to economy on the part of the commissioners in this particular, and the employment of the chief part of their large cash for such a purpose would have constituted a much better apology than has been offered by them by withholding from the bank the sums which the act, according to the strict construction of it, required to be paid into it, and would unquestionably have been the most convenient arrangement. In the year 1799, a sum of 27,000*l.* due to captors, was turned to this use,

which, through the accumulation of interest, amounted to 33,553*l.* at the time when it was paid; and a sum of about 33,000*l.* has been obtained for interest on the balances in the hands of the East-India company. It has indeed been discovered in the progress of these inquiries, that the commissioners have availed themselves of the opportunity so obviously afforded them of rendering their balances productive; but that they employed them, during the years which preceded the completion of their sales, entirely with view to their own emolument. They have invested a part of them in exchequer bills, a part in India bonds and a small part in the very exceptionable article of bills of exchange on private individuals, which they have discounted. No minute was made of any resolution of the board to employ any part of the cash in hand in this manner, and no proof of such employment of it appears among the receipts and payments of the cash-book; the balances of which therefore do not exhibit, as they ought to do, the amount of cash in the hands of the Bank, and of the several bankers, but include the sum lent out at interest: neither has any trace of the transaction been exhibited in any account, nor any mention of it been made to government, except that at about the same time when it was stated to the committee on public expenditure, the treasury were furnished with a copy of the statement. The committee itself did not at once receive correct or explicit information on this point. It will appear by the papers and evidence annexed, that on the 2nd of March, 1807, the commissioners were directed (nearly in the same terms in which the heads of other offices were required to furnish their returns) to give an account

account of their establishment and names, how paid, salary, fees, and other emoluments, and amount of their receipts on an average of the last three years." The commissioners stated in their return, that they had 'no salary, fees, or emoluments, they being paid the usual commission on the sale of the property placed under their care, out of which they paid salaries to clerks, and all other expences of their establishment,' and they proceeded to say, that "their sales having ceased from the year 1798, and consequently their commission also, they expected to be allowed, on the final settlement of their accounts, a reasonable remuneration for their services since that period." In an examination of one of the commissioners which took place a week after, he having mentioned that "a sum had been invested for the benefit of captors," was thereupon asked, "What was the amount of the sum invested in public securities?" and he replied, "about 27,000*l.* for the captors, and the whole remainder is invested also in public securities, which we shall account for to government (when we close our accounts) with interest."—In an explanatory paper, delivered to the committee a fortnight after this examination, the commissioners, after stating, "that they have taken particular care from time to time not to retain a larger balance than was necessary to meet the exigencies to which they were liable," add, that "they have invested the greatest part of that money in public securities, with a view of making it productive while it remained in their hands." They then say, that "they consider themselves accountable to government for the interest thus accruing." These expressions seem to your committee

to imply, that they considered themselves accountable to government for whatever interest they had at any time received by lending the balances in hand, with the exception only of that portion of interest for which they had represented themselves as accountable to captors.—They further observe in this explanatory paper, that "on the other hand, having received no commission since the year 1799, they conceived that the services they have since rendered will not be more than adequately compensated by that interest, &c." But when the commissioners were specifically required, by a subsequent order of the 9th of March, 1808, to render "an account of interest and benefit of any kind derived from the possession of any money which in virtue of their commission may from time to time have remained in their hands, and of which no account had been rendered to the treasury," they took a distinction between two considerable sums, received by them for interest at different periods, the one a sum of about 18,000*l.* (or of about 16,000*l.* according to a subsequently corrected statement) received for interest before the completion of their sales; the other, a sum of about 26,000*l.* received after that period; and they remarked, that "it is for the last of these sums that they have declared themselves ready to account;" but that as to the smaller sum, first received, "they have only kept an account of it, as between themselves." They have declared themselves unable to furnish from their private papers all the information which has been asked respecting the sum first received; but they confidently remark, that the profit thus made, is not more than the sum stated.—They endeavour to establish their

their title to the sum first received, partly by claiming interest on their balances as a privilege common to public accountants, and partly by observing that the sum in question is not equal to certain sums which they had relinquished, though entitled to them. The chief sum said to be so relinquished, is that part of their commission which had been applied by them to the payment of the expences of their establishment (amounting to about 15,000*l.*) from the burthen of supporting which they now claimed a right to be exempt, although, in their original return, they had professed to charge themselves with it. Another sum, which they take credit for having relinquished, consists of some commission, which they forbore to charge to captors; but the reason assigned for this renunciation is one which your committee cannot countenance or approve. Annexed is a paper transmitted by one of the commissioners, in explanation of the meaning of the expressions used in their first return: but, in the judgment of your committee, it has not removed the ground of any of the preceding observations. Your committee now proceed to the last point on which it is necessary to dwell, namely, the amount and mode of remuneration which, under all the circumstances of the present case, seem the most proper to be adopted. The following is the amount of the profits which were stated on the 10th Feb. 1809, to have been received by the commissioners:

Commission at five per cent. on the gross proceeds of their sales, after paying charges of their establishment	- - - £.74,137
Brokerage	- - - 4,346
Interest	- - - 36,458

Making together £.114,941

It was then also stated, that a further sum had been received, or was receivable for interest, which would make the profits of the commissioners - - - - - 124,785

Subject to a deduction of 1,587

Making - - - - - 123,198

They have expected for commission, a further sum of about - 10,000

Making the total profits received, and expected, about - - - 133,198

Much the larger part of their commission has been charged on property sold for them by the East-India company, who, by a clause in 37 Geo. 3, c. 80, were allowed five per cent. for their expence in effecting such sales. The commissioners, in their first return, have termed a commission of five per cent. on the gross proceeds of their sales, "the usual commission;" but two and a half per cent. on the gross proceeds is the highest rate common among merchants, and is the rate charged by them in the case of goods sold through the medium of the East-India company. The interest which the commissioners have derived from the great balance of cash in their hands, is not warranted by mercantile practice, an exact interest account being generally kept between merchants selling on commission, and their employers, to whom, indeed, they frequently make large advances; and a commission of two and a half per cent. is, therefore, to be considered as in some measure a recompence for that accommodation. It may be further remarked, that the extraordinary magnitude of the sales of the commissioners form a reasonable ground for keeping down the rate of commission. This principle was urged in

in the report of the committee on public offices upon the bank, with reference to the allowance made for the management of the public debt, and has been since acted upon; and it no less evidently applies to the present case. But the grounds on which the commissioners have preferred their claim to a commission of five per cent. on the gross proceeds in their more recent statements, have chiefly been a precedent for that allowance, supposed to have been afforded in the case of a similar commission issued in the war of 1756, and the general practice of prize agents. The commissioners state themselves to have derived their intelligence on the former of these points from a conversation with the late Mr. Aufrere, one of the commissioners in 1756, but their information is very imperfect and incorrect; and the commissioner who gave evidence before your committee professed not to know whether the commission was charged on the gross or on the net amount of the proceeds of the sales. It appears by some authentic documents on this subject, of which copies are annexed, that a commission of two and a half per cent. on the net proceeds having been granted, out of which various undefined expences were to be defrayed, the commissioners represented these expences (which according to their construction of the term, included brokerage and various other charges besides those of their establishment) to amount to more than their commission; and that a commission of two and a half per cent. on the net proceeds of sales, independently of all expences, was consequently substituted. A copy of the entry in the account presented to the treasury by the auditor, after the termination of the transactions under this

commission, is inserted in the appendix, by which it appears, that the total sum paid for commission was 14,768*l.* 3*s.* It was divided among fourteen commissioners. — The rate of commission charged by prize agents has been fixed by long usage at five per cent.; and has lately been applied by the law to the net proceeds of sale, having before been charged on the gross proceeds. It appears by the evidence, that the excess of the commission of prize agents above that of merchants, is justified chiefly by the peculiar trouble imposed on the prize agent, in the distribution of the proceeds of his sales among the crews of the capturing vessels, a trouble from which the commissioners for the sale of Dutch property were exempt. If also the capital employed by the prize agent, and the responsibility and risk to which he is subject, are taken into consideration, little disparity between the two charges will be found. Your committee will now present an estimate of the remuneration, to which the commissioners would be entitled, according to each of the three principles which have been mentioned. First, if the commission usual among merchants of two and a half per cent. on the gross proceeds of sales should be granted, about 50,000*l.* would be the amount of the allowance, out of which the expences of the establishment (in all about 17,000*l.*) would be to be defrayed, leaving about 33,000*l.* clear profit to be divided among the commissioners. 2dly. If the principle adopted in 1756, of two and a half per cent. on the net proceeds, (which may amount to about 1,300,000*l.* or 1,400,000*l.*) should be resorted to, a sum of about 32,500*l.* to 35,000*l.* would be receivable, which, the expences of the establishment being

ing paid, would leave about 15,500*l.* to 18,000*l.* to be divided among the commissioners. 3dly. If the commission should be calculated at the rate which was usual among prize agents, at the time when the commissioners began to act, namely, five per cent. on the gross proceeds of sales, the sum would be about 99,000*l.* subject to a similar deduction, leaving a clear profit of about 82,000*l.* Your committee can by no means agree to decide the question according to this principle. The commission received by prize agents at the time when the commissioners were appointed, has lately been determined to be a more than adequate remuneration for the whole of their trouble. It should also be recollected that the commissioners not only have been exempt from the labour of distributing the proceeds of their sales among the individual sailors concerned in the captures, and from much other trouble and responsibility, as well as from the advances to which prize agents are subject, but are also enabled, by the magnitude of the sum on which their commission is charged, to transact the public business at a much lower rate than is fairly due to individuals receiving ordinary consignments. On the whole, your committee recommend that a commission of five per cent. on the net proceeds of sales should be allowed to the commissioners, then paying the charges of their establishment. This allowance will probably amount to not less than about 50,000*l.* or 40,000*l.* to each commissioner, and will be more, by about 17,000*l.* than would be due to them, according to the usual practice of merchants, and more, by at least about 32,000*l.* than they could claim according to the precedent of 1756, to which they have

appealed. The excess of this remuneration above that enjoyed by merchants, as well as above that granted in 1756, may be justified on the ground partly of more than ordinary trouble imposed on the present commissioners, and partly by the length of time during which their commission has necessarily subsisted, and perhaps partly also by the circumstance of your committee, in consequence of the omission not only of the commissioners, but also of the government, having to recommend a retrospective arrangement. The sum which the commissioners will have to refund, in case of the adoption of this suggestion, will be not less than between 60 and 70,000*l.* They will also fail to receive nearly 20,000*l.* which they appear to have expected to appropriate to their own use, for further interest and commission. Your committee cannot allow any weight to the observation, that two of the commissioners, having, after a term, quitted their professions with a view to the fulfilment of their trust, some reference should be made to this circumstance in estimating the amount of the remuneration. No notice of the intended sacrifice was given; and it is obvious, that by proportioning the general compensation receivable by the body to the special claims of two individuals, a more than adequate reward would be granted to the majority. If it should be thought fit to adopt the suggestion of your committee, the commissioners ought to be credited in account for the proposed commission, and to be debited for all sums applied to their own use, since they have been taken without due authority, the same general principles being observed by the auditors, in the settlement of the concerns of these commissioners, which are usual in similar cases.

our committee further suggest, that the commissioners should be directed to use their utmost diligence to make up and transmit their accounts to the lords of his majesty's privy council, with a view to their being submitted to the board of treasury, and by them referred to the auditors. Your committee have not pursued their examination of all the topics to which their attention had been called, will be seen by the evidence, partly because such investigation might detain them too long from their inquiries into other subjects, and partly on the ground of their not wishing to be considered as exempting the government from the duty of applying their attention to the transactions of the commissioners, or the auditors from the diligent and exact performance of the functions of their important office. The magnitude of the charges on the vessels and cargoes sold, which manifests itself in the difference between the gross and the net proceeds, and in the excess of the charges above the whole proceeds in the case of many vessels, appears to demand attention. Your committee have had it chiefly in their view to examine and advert upon those points which derive importance either from the magnitude of the saving in question, or from their involving some general principles, on which it might be material to insist. On a review of the whole of the subject which has been before them, they beg leave generally to remark, that to commit pecuniary trusts of extraordinary magnitude to persons, however respectable as individuals, and however qualified for their employment by the habits of their former lives, without settling, during a long course of years, the mode or

amount of their remuneration, without providing any material check on their proceedings, and without reminding them of their responsibility by calling for any regular or periodical account, is a neglect which may be expected often to lead to equally prejudicial consequences, and is a deviation from the acknowledged duty, and also, as your committee trusts, from the ordinary practice of government.

EAST-INDIA COMPANY.

Report from the committee of the house of commons, on the patronage of the East-India Company.—Ordered to be printed 23rd March, 1809.

The select committee, appointed to inquire into the existence of any corrupt practices, in regard to the appointment and nomination of writers or cadets in the service of the East-India Company; or any agreement, negotiation, or bargain, direct or indirect, for the sale thereof; and to report the same, as it shall appear to them, to the house, together with their observations thereupon; and who were empowered to report the minutes of evidence taken before them; and their proceedings, from time to time, to the house;

Began their investigation by examining into a case brought before them by Geo. Woodford Thelluson, Esq. a member of this house, in which his patronage and confidence appear to have been grossly abused.—The whole evidence being given at length in the appendix, your committee content themselves with inserting, in this place, a short abstract only of this, and every other transaction; giving the names of

of the persons appointed, of those by whom they were recommended, and by whom their nominations were signed, together with the names of the intermediate agents in any of the negotiations where money was paid or received.—Those appointments which have been completed in consequence of any such bargains, and upon which satisfactory evidence has been produced, will be placed first; a second class will be found of nominations which appear to have taken effect, but with regard to which, from the death of some of the parties, or from deficiency of proof in other particulars, your committee are unable to ascertain the names of the persons who were sent out to India. It is a satisfaction to your committee, throughout the whole evidence, to remark nothing which traces any one of these corrupt or improper bargains to any director, or induces a reasonable suspicion that it was done with the privity or connivance of any member of that court. Several negotiations which never took effect, will be found alluded to, or detailed in parts of the evidence; which it was thought proper not to reject under the comprehensive directions “that your committee should inquire into any agreement, negotiation, or bargain, direct or indirect, for the sale of such nomination;” and when such information was received, they deemed it inexpedient to withhold it from this house, though they are fully aware that their desire of opening every channel of inquiry has led to an extent of examination, and to a mass of evidence, from which much might be retrenched without detriment, if it had been easy to establish a satisfactory principle of omission, or abridgment, which might have left

nothing wholly irrelevant or trifling, while it comprehended what ever might be interesting either to this house, or to the East-India company.

WRITERS.—Mr. Ed. Js. Smith was nominated a writer to Bengal in the season 1806-7, by Mr. W. Thellusson; the appointment was given to his first cousin, Mr. Emperor J. A. Woodford, who secured the appointment for 3,500*l.* through the agency of Mr. Tahourdin, solicitor, who received 100*l.* out of the sum. The other persons concerned in this negotiation were Mr. Wimbourn and Mr. Laing.

CADETS.—Mr. Henry Stoughton was appointed a cadet to Madras Jan. 1808, by George Abercrombie Robinson, Esq. by the recommendation of Mr. Morland, who gave the appointment to Mr. Jones for the relation of his. Mr. Jones, through the agency of John Annesley Shee sold it to Mr. Stoughton, father of the person appointed, from whom Shee received 500 guineas: he paid 180*l.* to Mr. Jones, and received of him an undertaking to pay 3200*l.* upon his procuring for Mr. Jones a Woolwich cadetship. This appointment has been vacated by the court of directors, in consequence of their having discovered the means through which it was obtained.

Having reported between thirty and forty other cases: the committee say,

It appears in evidence, that some other nominations of this description have been purchased: but your committee have not been able to discover and bring before them some of the persons who appear to have been parties to these transactions; particularly Sir Nich. Nugent, Mr. W. Lowen Tugwell Robins, Mr. Jos. Home, Cap. Matthew, and Cap. Holmes. A further examination

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tion into some other bargains, is precluded by the death of Lady Lumm, Lady Leigh, and Capt. Sealey.

The attention both of the legislature and of the East-India company has been attracted at various periods to abuses, which were supposed to exist in the disposal of their patronage; in consequence of which, at the time when their charter was renewed, an oath was framed, to be taken by each director within ten days after his election, containing, among other engagements, the following: "I do swear, that I will not, directly nor indirectly, accept, or take any perquisite, emolument, fee, present, or reward, upon any account whatsoever, or any promise or engagement for any perquisite, emolument, fee, present, or reward whatsoever, for or in respect of the appointment or nomination of any person or persons to any place or office in the gift or appointment of the said company, or of me as a director thereof, or for or on account of stationing or appointing the voyage or voyages of any ship or ships in the said company's employ, or for or on account of or any ways relating to any other business or affairs of the said company." 33 Geo. III, c. 52, s. 160.—In the bye-laws of the East-India company, c. 6, sect. 5, a penalty is imposed upon every director taking any reward on account of any appointment, in double the amount of such reward, two-thirds of which to the company, and one-third to the informer; and such director is rendered *ipso facto* incapable of holding any place whatever under the company.—The form of declaration on every writer's petition, is, "I recommended this petition, and do most solemnly declare that I have given this nomination to

and that I neither have

received myself, nor am to receive, nor has any other person, to the best of my knowledge or belief, received, nor is to receive, any pecuniary consideration, nor any thing convertible in any mode into a pecuniary benefit on this account." The form of certificate required to be signed by the nearest of kin to each cadet, contains the following declaration: "I do further declare, that I received the said appointment for my son

gratuitously, and that no money or other valuable consideration has been or is to be paid, either directly or indirectly, for the same; and that I will not pay, or cause to be paid, either by myself, by my son, or by the hands of any other person, any pecuniary or valuable consideration whatsoever, to any person or persons who have interested themselves in procuring the said nomination for my son from the director above-mentioned."—The printed preparatory instructions which are circulated by the East-India company for the use of those who may be nominated cadets, begin with the following resolution: "That any person who shall in future be nominated to a situation, either civil or military, in the service of this company, and who shall have obtained such nomination either directly or indirectly by purchase, or agreement to purchase, through the medium of an agent or other person, shall be rejected; and the persons so nominated shall be rendered incapable of holding any situation whatsoever in the company's service: and in the event of any person having obtained an appointment in the manner before stated, and proceeded to India previous to its being discovered, such person shall be dismissed the company's service, and ordered back to

England, and shall also be rendered incapable of holding any situation whatsoever in the company's service." It is to be observed, that abuses in the disposal of cadetships are better guarded against than in that of writerships, since the present form of certificate has been applied to them; for in the writerships the director himself only declares that to the best of his knowledge or belief no pecuniary consideration has been or is to be received; but with regard to every cadet, the parent or next of kin makes a similar declaration for himself. The cases which are exhibited in this report demonstrate that such declarations are not of sufficient force to prevent a very extensive traffic in those nominations, which are apparently the best secured by a positive denial of all undue practices. An inquiry was set on foot by the court of directors, in 1798; upon the allegation and suspicion of abuses in the nominations, of writers; the origin, progress, and failure of which it may be proper to give in some detail.—25th of April, 1798: A committee of the directors was appointed to investigate into the truth of the alleged practice of the sale of patronage, and to consider of such means as may appear likely to prevent the same in future, if such practices have occurred.—9th July: Each director's nomination of writers was laid before the committee, who resolved that each member of the committee should state in writing the names of the parties to whom he has given the nomination, together with the reasons which induced him to give the same: and that the several parties who have received such nominations for their sons, &c. be required to produce satisfactory information to the committee upon oath, or in such man-

ner as the committee shall deem most expedient, that neither they nor any person on their account, or with their privity or knowledge, have given or promised to give any consideration on account of such nomination, either to the director from whom they obtained the same, or to any person on his behalf: and it was agreed to recommend to the court to direct each individual member of the court to do the same.—1st August 1798: the court approved this report; and (15th August) each director in office, as well as those out of, by rotation (except Mr. Devaynes) have explanations in writing. — 28th Feb. 1799: it was resolved that every appointment made in consequence of corrupt practices be null and void, unless the parties to whom the appointment is given shall, upon examination before the committee, make a fair and candid disclosure of all the circumstances attending the same. It was likewise resolved, that each director should in future, on the petition of the writer whom he nominates, "declare upon his honour to whom he has given the appointment, and that he neither has received himself, nor is he to receive, nor has any other person to the best of his knowledge or belief received, nor is to receive, any pecuniary consideration, nor any thing convertible in any mode into a pecuniary benefit on this account." The direction being changed in April: on the 14th of August 1799, a new committee to investigate the truth of the sale of patronage, &c. was appointed.—17th January, 1800: the draft of a letter proposed to be addressed to the parents, &c. of persons appointed writers since 1793, requesting them to declare whether the appointments were given without any pecuniary or

or other consideration, was considered by the committee; when a discussion arose, whether it should be on oath: when it was adjourned till the 21st of Jan.: and it being then suggested whether it would be proper for the committee to proceed in their inquiry, it was decided in the affirmative.

The committee then proceeded to consider the drafts of the letter to the parents, &c. a draft of a report to the court stating their reasons for recommending this mode of investigation, as also the form of a declaration for the persons who have received such appointments. The consideration was adjourned to the 24th of Jan.: when a discussion ensuing thereon, and on the necessity and expediency of the mode of public investigation therein proposed; it was agreed to postpone the said report, and to proceed to act agreeably to the authority and instructions already received from the court. The committee resolved, that in their opinion the parties to whom each director had given nominations, should be called upon to state on what grounds they have received the same, in every case that the committee may deem it expedient so to do.

The committee then examined, *viva voce*, its different members, as a preliminary to the proposed measure; each member declared upon his honour, that what he had stated in regard to his appointments was strictly true, and expressed his readiness to confirm the same by his oath.—23th Jan. 1800: The committee met to consider a draft of a report to the court, communicating their proceedings, and proposing further measures for the court's adoption, as also a draft of a letter referred to in the said report.—31st Jan: The report of this

day's date, with the letters to the parents, &c. and the declaration to be made by them, was approved.—5th Feb.: The court, after considerable discussion of the above, confirm the same; but resolve that the consideration of what is further to be done on the said report be adjourned to the 11th of Feb.: when it is resolved, that the committee of patronage be instructed to proceed in the examination of the other members of the court, as they did with themselves. It was then moved, that the declaration proposed in the report be upon oath: on this, the motion of adjournment was carried.—25th Feb.: A report signed by 15 directors, approves the declaration, and recommends that the several persons to whom the same is sent be requested to confirm such declaration upon oath,—Another report on the same day, signed by 12 directors, recommends that no further proceedings be had in this business till the 1st of May. Both the above reports are approved by the court.—26th Feb. 1800: The right hon. Henry Dundas addressed the court, acknowledging the receipt of their minute: and stating that he feels it a duty that he owes both to himself and the court, to omit no means in his power for ascertaining whether any person whom he has obliged through the favour of the court, has presumed to abuse his kindness in so sordid and unwarrantable a manner. Sir Francis Baring dissents from the resolutions to call for the declaration on oath.

The committee of patronage ceasing with the direction in April; on the 18th June, 1800, the court took into consideration the propriety of re-appointing the said committee.—It being moved, "That a committee of patronage be re-appointed;

pointed ; an amendment was moved, to leave out all the words after the word "that," and to insert in their room the following: "It does not appear to this court, that any circumstance has been stated to the court, by which the committee lately appointed for an inquiry into the disposal of patronage, that can induce or would justify the court in adopting the illegal and novel administration of extra-judicial oaths to a variety of persons, not directly connected with the East-India company or the management of its affairs, and which, though it would tend to throw a suspicion upon the court at large, which no circumstances that have hitherto come to the knowledge of the court can induce them to suppose the members thereof merit, would not, they conceive, be an effectual mode of bringing to light any such practices, even if such, in any partial instance, should have existed."

On the question for the amendment being put, the votes for and against were equal; when the lot decided for the amendment.

25th June: The chairman, deputy chairman, and eight other directors, dissent from the resolution not to re-appoint the committee of patronage.—24th Sept.: A motion was made in the court of proprietors, that the above proceedings be read; they were read accordingly, and notice given by the mover of his intention of bringing the subject forward at a future court.—20th Jan.: 1801, It was moved, "That it is the opinion of this court that the inquiry into the alleged abuse of patronage ought to be continued." It was moved to amend the said motion, by adding thereto the following words: "To investigate any charge that may be made of corrupt practices against any one or more of

the court of directors." The above amendment passed in the negative;—When a ballot was demanded on the original question; it was, 3rd Feb. 1801, lost by a majority of 139; 411 voting for the question, against it 550.

The following opinion of counsel was given to the court of directors, previous to the ballot being taken; viz.

"Case for the East-India company:

"Whether the court of directors, or any committee of the said court, whether considered as a committee of that court, or as a committee of proprietors, be legally authorized to call for the examination of such persons upon oath, as recommended by the court of directors in their resolution of the 25th Feb. 1800; or whether, in their opinion, any magistrate would be justified in administering the oath so recommended; and generally to advise concerning the legality and effect of such proceedings.—We are of opinion, that neither the court of directors, nor any committee of the said court, or committee of proprietors, have any legal authority to require or receive examinations of persons upon oath, as recommended by the resolution of the court of directors of the 25th Feb. 1800; and that no magistrate will be justified in administering such oaths.—"We therefore think the proposed proceedings would be contrary to law."—(Signed) J. Mitford, W. Grant, J. Mansfield, T. Erskine, George Rous.

If this house should in its wisdom adopt any legislative measures for the purpose of preventing all traffic in the disposal of offices under government, it will, in the opinion of your committee, be proper to extend the same protection to patronage held under the East-India company;

pany; but they see no reason to recommend any special or separate provisions, as applicable to their case, judging that the East-India company has, within its own power, the most effectual means for accomplishing that end.—It can never be advisable, without absolute necessity, to add new offences to the long catalogue already enumerated in the penal statutes; nor is it wise to diminish the sanctity of oaths by resorting to them upon all occasions. Where solemn declarations have been habitually disregarded, little reliance can be placed upon the sanction of any other species of asseveration. Instances occur but too frequently, where an oath comes to be considered merely as part of the official form by which an appointment is conferred; and the human mind, fertile in self-deception, accommodates itself with wonderful facility to overcoming all scruples, or applies a perverse ingenuity to evading all restrictions which stand in the way of present interest. Little fear of detection is entertained, when transactions are in their nature private and confidential; and the appellation of honour, most improperly applied to negotiations of this clandestine kind, attaches, by a singular perverseness, a stronger degree of obligation to the performance of such engagements, upon the very ground that they are illegal.

With a view to prevent all dealings in patronage, the obvious and natural mode will be, to take away all inducement to traffic in it; and this can only be attained by making the hazard of such speculations greater than the temptation.—The regulations of the company are founded upon this true and efficacious principle. But examples have hitherto been wanting to demonstrate the determination of the court

of directors to enforce their orders; no instance of purchasing or procuring, by undue means, an appointment in the civil or military service of the East-India company, after such appointment had actually taken place, and since the court's resolution of the 28th Feb. 1799, having been so far established, as to enable the court to dismiss the party appointed.—The immediate consequence of the information contained in this report, must be, that a certain number of persons in the service of the company will be instantly deprived of their employments, recalled from India, and declared incapable of again receiving any appointment under the company. The money improperly given for procuring these situations, will be absolutely lost, without any possibility of recovery; and those who have, either imprudently or corruptly, been concerned in obtaining what they conceived to be benefits for their relatives or friends, will find that they have done the greatest injury to those whom they desired to serve, by inducing them to dedicate some of the best years of their lives to an employment, which the original defects, and corrupt practices through which it was obtained, must disqualify them from prosecuting.—Hard as some of these cases must be, and innocent and ignorant as many of the young men, nominated under these circumstances, probably are, of the undue means by which their appointments were acquired, your committee are of opinion, that nothing but a strict adherence to the rule laid down by the court of directors, can put a stop to the continuance of these abuses, and prevent the chance of their recurring.—In 1779, when, in the course of the investigation already mentioned, indemnity was offered to all those who

who would make a fair and candid disclosure of all the circumstances through which their situations had been procured, though information was gained with regard to facts, no example could be made, in consequence of such disclosure, of those who were found offending; and it may be doubted whether such practices have been less prevalent since that inquiry, than before. The deficiency of their power to compel persons to answer, precluded the court of directors from discovering, if they punished, or from punishing if they discovered, the traffic which was the subject of complaint.

The oath taken by the directors seems as effectual as any thing which can be devised for the purpose of guarding against corruption, so far as the directors themselves are immediately concerned; and your committee have already remarked, that no one case of corruption or abuse, which has been before them, affects any member of that court. It is, in the passing through several hands, which happens frequently with regard to the more numerous and less valuable appointments of cadets, that opportunities for this sort of negotiation are presented, which, without a greater degree of vigilance and strictness on the part of each director, at the time of making such nomination, it will be impracticable to prevent in future.

Your committee may perhaps be exceeding the limits of their province, in the further considerations to which this subject leads; but as they decline recommending any special legislative enactment, their view of the proper remedy for these abuses may be incomplete, unless they proceed to suggest some other observations.—The unpleasant duty of increased vigilance is not likely to be performed without some incitement

of benefit or disadvantage, attendant upon the exercise, or neglect of it; and it is equally conformable to experience to presume, that patronage will continue to be abused, so long as no inconvenience is felt by the person primarily giving, or by the person ultimately receiving it.—Where strict examination is a duty, any species of negligence cannot be wholly blameless; and it appears not unreasonable to curtail, in some degree, the patronage of those, who have either not been sufficiently watchful in the disposal of it, or whose diligence has been unsuccessful in preventing the abuses which are complained of. As an additional check against those who are inclined to purchase such appointments, it may be expedient that a bond should be given by the parent, guardian, or friend, of every person receiving a nomination, containing a penalty to be paid to the East-India company, upon proof being made at any subsequent period, that any valuable consideration was given for such appointment; that species of proof being deemed sufficient to levy the penalty, upon which the court or directors may think themselves authorized to vacate the appointment.

The practices which are developed in the present report, and other transactions which this house has recently had under its cognizance are sufficient to demonstrate, that patronage, of various descriptions has, in several instances, become an article of traffic; that an opinion of the generality of such practices has been prevalent to a still greater extent; and that fraudulent agents have availed themselves of this belief, to the injury of the credulous and unwary, and to the discredit of those in whose hands the disposition of offices is lodged. It will depend upon the steps which may be taken

in consequence of these inquiries, whether such abuses shall receive a permanent check, or a virtual encouragement.

FLOWER, MAYOR.

In a Meeting or Assembly of the Mayor, Aldermen, and Liverymen, of the several Companies of the City of London, in Common Hall assembled, at the Guildhall of the said City, on Saturday, the 1st day of April, 1809.

Resolved Unanimously,

1. That it has long been matter of notoriety, and has lately been proved, beyond the possibility of doubt, that abuses of a most corrupt nature and ruinous tendency have existed and still exist in various branches of the administration of public affairs.

2. Resolved unanimously—That to detect such abuses, and expose to detestation those men who have wickedly connived at or participated in them, requires no small degree of virtue, independence, and patriotism, all which have been eminently displayed by Gwyllym Lloyd Wardle, Esq. in instituting and conducting the late inquiry into the conduct of his Royal Highness the Duke of York.

3. Resolved unanimously—That the said Gwyllym Lloyd Wardle, Esq. is therefore entitled to the thanks and gratitude of this common hall, for his persevering and independent efforts, which have already produced beneficial effects, and are likely to lead to more advantageous results; and they express their confidence that having so manfully and ably commenced this arduous task, no difficulty or danger will damp his ardour or impede his progress in a cause so honourable to

himself, and so essential to the best interests of his country.

4. Resolved unanimously—That upon the same principles, and for the same reasons, they do highly approve of the conduct of Sir Francis Burdett, Bart. (the seconder), Lord Viscount Folkestone, Samuel Whitbread, Esq., Sir Samuel Romilly, Knight, General Fergusson, and the rest of the 125 honest and independent members, who supported Mr. Wardle's proposition on the 15th of March, 1809, and trust, that uninfluenced by party or feelings of interest, they will support every measure calculated to remove abuses and root out corruption.

5. Resolved unanimously—That these abuses form only a part of a wicked and corrupt system, which has been long acted upon, and no permanent good can arise from the late investigation, unless followed up by a general reformation of public abuses in every department of the state.

6. Resolved unanimously—That the corporation of London did, in petitions unanimously agreed to, and presented to both houses of parliament, during the last sessions, state, "That their burthens had been considerably augmented by gross abuses in the management and expenditure of the public money, by a profusion of sinecure places and pensions, which have not only added to the sufferings of the people, but created a pernicious influence, corrupting and undermining the free principles of the British constitution."

7. Resolved unanimously—That no measures calculated to remove these oppressive and alarming evils have yet been adopted, nor can any rational expectation be formed that such measures will be adopted, while the management of the public affairs is in the hands of persons

who

who are themselves the greatest pensioners and reversionists in the kingdom.

8. Resolved unanimously—That it has since appeared, by the report of the committee of the house of commons, that 78 members of that house are in the receipt of 178,994*l.* per annum out of the public money, who, with their relations, and the naval and military officers in that house, must give a most preponderating and dangerous influence to a minister of the crown.

9. Resolved unanimously—That if any doubt could remain as to the baneful effect of such influence, it has been sufficiently exemplified by the rejection of Mr. Wardle's late proposition in parliament, against the most conclusive evidence, and unequivocal sense of the country; and where it appeared that all his majesty's ministers—all the placemen—and all the pensioners, then present (stated to be 82 in number) voted against the said proposition; while, of course, in the minority of 125, not one of the ministers—not one placeman—not one pensioner—and only one naval and one military commander was to be found.

10. Resolved unanimously—That other governments have crumbled into ruin—other states have been subverted, and their ancient and venerable institutions overthrown, by the folly, profligacy, and vices of their rulers; and, in the opinion of this common hall, unless this overwhelming tide of corruption is resisted by temperate and timely reformation, it must inevitably lead to the ruin and subjugation of this country.

11. Resolved unanimously—That it will be highly expedient for the livery of London, some time during the present session, to meet for the purpose of laying a faithful state

ment of their grievances before parliament, and pray for redress of the same.

12.—Resolved unanimously—That the thanks of this common hall be given to Alderman Combe, one of the representatives of this city in parliament, for the support he gave to Mr. Wardle's motion, and for his uniform independence and incorruptibility in parliament.

13. Resolved—That Sir William Curtis, Bart. Sir Charles Price, Bart. and James Shaw, Esq. three of the representatives for this city in parliament have, by their recent conduct therein, shewn a contempt and disregard for the opinions and interests of their constituents, and a base subserviency to the will of ministers; and are, therefore, unworthy the confidence of their fellow-citizens.

14. Resolved—That the lord mayor has, by refusing to convene a common hall upon the three different requisitions, by presuming to dictate the terms and object of the present requisition, by the reluctance he even afterwards evinced, and the trouble and delay he has created, shewn a contempt and disregard for the rights and privileges of the livery, and is unworthy the confidence of his fellow-citizens.

15. Resolved—That the thanks of this common hall be given to Robert Waithman, Esq. for his manly conduct in the present instance, and his unremitting zeal upon all occasions where the interests of his fellow-citizens are in question.

16. Resolved unanimously—That the foregoing resolutions be signed by the town-clerk, and inserted in all the morning and evening papers.

WOODTHORPE,

CITY OF LONDON, COMMON
COUNCIL.

A common council, holden in the chamber of the Guildhall of the city of London, on Thursday, the 11th day of April, 1809.

Resolved unanimously: That this court has, on frequent occasions, been convinced its detestation of the public abuses, which have been found to exist in various departments of the state, and it cannot but equally condemn the corrupt practices developed by the late investigation before the house of parliament.

Resolved: That Gwyllym Lloyd Wardle, Esq., having, unawed by ministerial threats, exhibited serious charges against the late commander-in-chief, which have been clearly substantiated; and which have, in fact, induced his Royal Highness to resign a situation of which he is unworthy, is entitled to the esteem and gratitude of this court and the country.

Resolved unanimously: That the thanks of this court and the freedom of this city in a gold box, of the value of one hundred guineas, be presented to Gwyllym Lloyd Wardle, Esq. in grateful testimony of the high sense they entertain of the zeal, intrepidity, and patriotism, which is so eminently evinced in that arduous and laudable undertaking.

Resolved: That the thanks of this court be presented to Sir Francis Burdett, Baronet, (seconder,) Lord Colkestone, Sam. Whitbread, Esq., Mr Samuel Romilly, Knt., General Ferguson, Harvey Christian Combe, Esq., alderman, and one of the representatives of this city in parliament, and the rest of the 125 independent members who, upon the important question on the conduct of his Royal Highness the Duke of York, attempted to stem the torrent of corruption.

Resolved: That as a considerable number of those who voted in favour of the late commander-in-chief on the 18th of March last, hold lucrative appointments at the pleasure of the crown, a vote of acquittal, under such circumstances, must at all times appear extremely equivocal; but when given, as in the present instance, in direct contradiction to the evidence produced, which led to a decision so contrary to the legitimate expectations of the people, affords ground for apprehending that the decision has arisen from that preponderating influence of which this court before has complained.

Resolved: That these and other public abuses call loudly for constitutional correction and redress, and evince the necessity of a radical and speedy reform, as essential to the safety and security of the just prerogative of the crown as to the ancient and unalienable rights of the people.

Resolved: That the foregoing resolutions be signed by the town-clerk, and published in the morning and evening papers.

WOODTHORPE.

RUSSIA.

Declaration, dated 25th of April, (5th May.)

The peace between France and Austria, which has long been wavering, is at length entirely at an end. By the last advices, the Austrian troops have entered the duchy of Warsaw, and the states of Saxony and Bavaria. It is thus that the flames of war which had been so lately extinguished upon the continent have just been rekindled, and, by the force of circumstances, it is necessary that all the powers of Europe should take up arms again. The preparations for war on the part of Austria were the first cause

cause of this misunderstanding. Russia could not see these with indifference, every means were employed from the beginning to put an end to them: the guarantee of Russia of the integrity of the Austrian States was even offered, and at the same time it was declared, that in virtue of the existing alliance with France, every attack upon the present order of things would be considered as a violation of the rights stipulated by treaties, which ought to be maintained by the force of arms. Austria not rejecting the pacific insinuations made to her, pretended at first that her measures were only defensive; that they were occasioned only by the fear of the danger which threatened her; that her intention was not to undertake an offensive war, and that she would not break the peace. Facts have proved of how little value these assurances were. The measures of defence which progressively increased have changed into offensive measures. In the room of the fear that was expressed, ambitious plans have been developed, and the war has broken out by the invasion of foreign states, even before any declaration of war in the accustomed form. Austria, who knew perfectly well the conduct which Russia would hold under the present circumstances, has determined to renounce her friendship, and rekindle the flames of war even upon our frontiers, rather than desist from her projects. In consequence, orders have been given to the Russian ambassador at Vienna to quit that capital immediately, and it has been declared to the Austrian ambassador at this court, that from this moment his diplomatic functions have ceased, and that all the relations are broken off, with him and his court.

Proclamation of Prince Gallitzin who has the command of the Russian army which has penetrated Galicia, addressed to the Inhabitants, in the Russian and Polish Languages, dated May 11 1809.

Russia could not behold with indifference, the war that has broken out between France and Austria. Russia did every thing to prevent the commencement of these hostile operations. She declared even to the court of Austria, that, pursuant to articles of treaty between the emperors of Russia and France, and to the close alliance entered into by those two powers, she should be obliged to act in concert with France. Austria listened to none of these remonstrances; but long endeavoured to conceal her warlike preparations under pretence that she was obliged to adopt necessary measures for her security and defence till she at last, by open hostilities betrayed her designs, and kindled the flames of war. Russia has no longer hesitated to take a part in a war in which she is bound to engage by the most solemn treaties. As soon as she learned that hostilities had commenced, she broke off her relations of friendship which had subsisted between her and Austria, and gave orders to her army to advance into Galicia. The commander-in-chief of the army entering that province to oppose the views of Austria, and to resist force by force, has received from his majesty the emperor express orders solemnly to assure the peaceable inhabitants of Galicia that the views of Russia are not hostile; that amid all military operations, the security and safety of persons and property shall most strictly respected. The commander-in-chief shall prove, by his conduct

conduct, that the principles recommended by his sovereign are also consonant to his own inclinations and feelings.

PRINCE GALLITZIN,
Commander-in-chief.

Ukase to the Senate, dated St. Petersburg, May 7, 1809.

It is known by the whole world, with what firmness the trade of neutrals has been protected by Russia, when the powers of Europe were at war; it is known with what valour she has guarded the interests of trading nations in the time of peace, against the events of war. Following up this invariable principle, also during the present rupture with Britain, we entertained the fullest hopes that the trade with friendly powers would not be carried on by forbidden means; but as experience during last season has proved to us, that the enemy has found it practicable, by means of neutral vessels, to supply himself with such produce as he stood in need of, and to gain strength by exchanging his own produce; we have at present been compelled to order two vessels to be seized. For these reasons, and to prevent various subterfuges and artifices, we have deemed it necessary to establish some rules, and hereby order,

1. That all masters of neutral vessels, arriving at our ports, are to prove the property being neutral, by the following documents of the ship, viz. a pass, ship's register, muster-roll, log-book, cocket, manifest of the cargo, the charter-party, bills of lading, certificates of origin, whether the cargo, or part of the same, belonging to the captain, and by the invoices of such vessels as come from America or the Indies, or are bound there. In case, however, the master is not

provided with any one of the documents, the ship is to be sent out of our ports, and not to be permitted to discharge. 2. In case of neutral ships being partly loaded with merchandize which can be proved to be of the manufacture or produce of the enemy, the same to be stopped, the goods to be seized and sold by public auction, for the benefit of government; but, if more than half of the cargo consists of such goods, then not only the cargo, but also the ship is to be seized. 3. A pass granted the ship, by a neutral, friendly, or allied power, is not to be considered legal, as soon as it appears that the master has acted contrary to the same; or if the ship is named in the pass differently to what she is in the rest of her documents, unless the alteration made is proved by documents, attested by legal authority at the place from which the vessel departed, and produced before the magistracy of said place; in this instance the master is not to be considered guilty. 4. A pass is not to be considered valid, if it should appear that the vessel to which it is granted was not, at the very time it is dated, at one of the ports of the power by which it had been given. 5. If the supercargo or master, or more than one-third of the crew, of a neutral vessel, should be subjects of powers at war with us; or if such a vessel is not provided with a muster-roll of the crew, duly attested by the magistracy of such neutral ports from which the same departed, then both ship and cargo are to be seized, but the crew to be set at liberty. 6. If it should appear that the pass produced by the master has been counterfeited or altered, ship and cargo are to be seized for the benefit of government, and the master to be brought to

to trial, and to be dealt with as is prescribed by the laws for those who make false documents; the crew to be set at liberty. 7. If it should appear that a vessel is provided with double documents, with different destinations, such a vessel and her cargo to be seized for the benefit of government. In case the master wishes to justify himself, by having lost his documents, and cannot produce any proofs, his vessel to be detained, granting him time for procuring the same proportionate to the distance, if he wishes it; else, if the master cannot wait so long, ship and cargo are immediately to be sent off; but if, at the expiration of the period fixed, the master does not produce the needful proofs, ship and cargo are to be seized for the benefit of government. 8. No ship built by the enemy is to be considered neutral, unless amongst other documents, a duly attested document is found, proving the sale or transfer to have taken place, before the declaration of the war; else, ship and cargo are to be seized for the benefit of government. 9. If the owner or commander of a neutral vessel happen to be a native of a nation at war with us, and are provided with passes of a neutral power, in such a case the pass is not to serve as a clearance, as long as they cannot prove having become subjects and residents of such a power previous to the declaration of war; else, they are to be sent off, with their ships, not allowing them to take in return cargoes.

Imperial Decree, dated Vienna, 17th May, 1809, proclaimed in all the public squares and market-places of the city.

Napoleon, emperor of the French, &c. taking into consideration, that

when Charlemagne, emperor of the French, and our sublime predecessor, endowed the bishops of Rome with various lands, they were given as fiefs to maintain the peace of his subjects, and that Rome did not therefore cease to form a part of his empire: considering further, that since that time the union of spiritual and temporal power has been and still is, the source of dissension; that the popes have but too frequently availed themselves of the one, to support their pretensions to the other; and that with spiritual concerns, which are in their nature immutable, have been confounded worldly affairs, which change with the circumstances and politics of the times: considering finally, that it is in vain to attempt to reconcile the temporal pretensions of the pope, all that we have concerted for the security of our army, the repose and prosperity of the nations over which we reign, and the dignity and inviolability of our empire,

We have decreed, and do decree as follow:

Art. 1. The papal territory is united with the French empire. 2. The city of Rome, illustrious for the recollection it recalls, and for the monuments which it contains, is declared to be a free and imperial city. Its government and administration shall be fixed by a particular decree. 3. The monuments of Roman greatness shall be maintained and preserved, at the expence of our treasury. 4. The public debt is declared to be the debt of the empire. 5. The revenue of the pope shall be fixed at two millions of francs, free from all charges and contributions. 6. The property and palaces of his holiness shall be subject to no imposition, jurisdiction, or visitation, and shall besides enjoy especial

special prerogatives. 7. An extraordinary consulta shall, on the 1st of June, take possession in our name of the papal dominions, and adopt measures that on the first of January, 1810, the constitutional government take effect.

(Signed) NAPOLEON.

Another decree of the same date establishes an extraordinary consulta, consisting of the following members: Miollis, governor-general, president; Salcette, minister of the king of Naples; Degerando, Janet, Del Pozzo, and Debalde, secretaries. This consulta is ordered to take possession of the papal territory, so that the transition from the old to the new order of things may be unperceived. Then follows a proclamation of the consulta, after its installation, to the Romans, congratulating them upon the change in their situation.

AMERICA.

Washington, May 22.—EXTRA SESSION.—This day both houses of congress assembled in their respective chambers. In senate twenty-one members attended. In the lower house, at the first call, 120 members appeared.—General Varnum is re-elected Speaker—

PRESIDENT'S MESSAGE.

At twelve o'clock, the president of the United States communicated, by Mr. Graham, the following message to both houses of congress:—

Washington City, May 23.

Fellow citizens of the senate, and of the house of representatives.—On this first occasion of meeting you, it affords me much satisfaction, to be able to communicate the commencement of a favourable change in our foreign relations; the critical state of which induced a session of

congress at this period. In consequence of the provisions of the act interdicting commercial intercourse with Great Britain and France, our ministers at London and Paris were, without delay, instructed to let it be understood by the French and British governments, that the authority vested in the executive, to renew commercial intercourse with their respective nations, would be exercised in the case specified by that act. Soon after these instructions were dispatched, it was found that the British government, anticipating, from early proceedings of congress at their last session, the state of our laws, which has had the effect of placing the two belligerent powers on a footing of equal restrictions, and relying on the conciliatory dispositions of the United States, had transmitted to their legation here provisional instructions, not only to offer satisfaction for the attack on the frigate Chesapeake, and to make known the determination of his Britannic majesty, to send an envoy extraordinary with powers to conclude a treaty on all points between the two countries; but moreover, to signify his willingness, in the mean time, to withdraw his orders in council, in the persuasion that the intercourse with Great Britain would be renewed on the part of the United States. These steps of the British government led to the correspondence and the proclamation now laid before you; by virtue of which, the commerce between the two countries will be renewable after the 10th day of June next. Whilst I take pleasure in doing justice to the councils of his Britannic majesty, which, no longer adhering to the policy which made an abandonment by France, of her decrees, a pre-requisite to a revocation of the British orders, have substituted

stituted the amicable course which has issued thus happily: I cannot do less than refer to the proposal heretofore made on the part of the United States, embracing a like restoration of the suspended commerce, as a proof of the spirit of accommodation which has, at no time been intermitted, and to the result which now calls for our congratulations as corroborating the principles by which the public councils have been guided during a period of the most trying embarrassments. The discontinuance of the British orders as they respect the United States, having been thus arranged, a communication of the event has been forwarded, in one of our public vessels, to our minister plenipotentiary at Paris, with instructions to avail himself of the important addition thereby made, to the considerations which press on the justice of the French government a revocation of its decrees, or such a modification of them, as they shall cease to violate the neutral commerce of the United States. The revision of the commercial laws, proper to adapt them to the arrangement which has taken place with Great Britain, will doubtless engage the early attention of congress. It will be worthy, at the same time, of their just and provident care, to make such further alterations in the laws, as will more especially protect and foster the several branches of manufacture which have been recently instituted or extended by the laudable exertions of our citizens. It will rest with the judgment of congress to decide how far the change in our external prospects may authorize any modifications of the laws relating to the army and navy establishments. The works of defence for our sea-port towns and harbours have proceeded with as much acti-

vity as the season of the year and other circumstances would admit. It is necessary, however, to state that the appropriations hitherto made being found to be deficient, a further provision will claim the early consideration of congress. The whole of the eight per cent. stock remaining due by the United States amounting to 5,300,000 dollars had been reimbursed on the last day of the year 1808. And on the first day of April last, the sum in the treasury exceeded nine and a half millions of dollars. This, together with the receipts of the current year on account of former revenue bonds will probably be nearly, if not altogether sufficient, to defray the expenses of the year. But the suspension of exports and the consequent decrease of importations during the last twelve months, will necessarily cause a great diminution in the receipts of the year 1811. After that year, should our foreign relations be undisturbed, the revenue will again be more than commensurate to all the expenditures. Under the existing aspect of our affairs, I have thought it not inconsistent with a just precaution, to have the gun-boats, with the exception of those at New Orleans, placed in a situation incurring no expense beyond that requisite for their preservation, and convenience for future service; and to have the crews of those at New Orleans reduced to the number required for their navigation and safety. I have thought also, that our citizens detached in quotas of militia, amounting to 100,000, under the act of March 1808, might not improperly be relieved from the state in which they were held for immediate service. A discharge of them has been accordingly directed. The progress made in raising and organizing the additional

ditional military force, for which provision was made by the act of April, 1808, together with the disposition of the troops, will appear in a report which the secretary of the navy is preparing, and which will be laid before you. Of the additional frigates required by an act of the 1st session to be fitted for actual service, two are in readiness, one nearly so, and the fourth is to be ready in the month of July. A report which the secretary of the navy is preparing on the subject, to be laid before congress, will shew, at the same time, the progress made in officering and manning these ships. It will show also the degree in which the provisions of the act relative to other public armed vessels have been carried into effect. Aware of the inconvenience of a protracted session at the present season of the year, I forbear to call the attention of the legislature to any matters particularly urgent. It remains, therefore, only to assure you of the ability and alacrity with which I will co-operate for the welfare and happiness of our country, and to say that it may experience a continuance of the divine blessings by which it has been so signally favoured.

(Signed) JAMES MADISON.

ORDERS IN COUNCIL.

At the Court of the Queen's Bench, the 24th of May, 1809.—Present—the King's most excellent Majesty in Council:

Whereas his majesty was pleased, by his order in council of the 26th April last, to declare certain ports and places of the countries which have been lately styled the kingdom of Holland, to be subject to the restrictions incident to a strict and rigorous blockade, as continued from his majesty's former order of the

11th Nov. 1807; and whereas advices have been received of a certain provisional agreement entered into by his majesty's envoy extraordinary and minister plenipotentiary in America, with the government of the United States, whereby it is understood that his majesty's orders in council of the 7th Jan. and of the 11th Nov. 1807, shall be withdrawn so far as respects the United States, on the 10th of June next.

And whereas, although the said provisional agreement is not such as was authorised by his majesty's instructions, or such as his majesty can approve, it may already have happened or may happen, that persons being citizens of the said United States may be led by a reliance on the said provisional agreement, to engage in trade with and to the said ports and places of Holland, contrary to, and in violation of the restrictions imposed by the said orders of the 7th Jan. and of the 11th Nov. 1807, as altered by the order of the 26th April last; his majesty, in order to prevent any inconveniences that may ensue from the circumstance above recited, is pleased, by and with the advice of his privy council, to order, and it is hereby ordered, That the said several orders shall be suspended, so far as is necessary for the protection of vessels of the said United States, so sailing under the faith of the said provisional agreement, viz. that after the 9th day of June next, no vessel of the United States, which shall have cleared out between the 19th of April last, and the 20th of July ensuing, for any of the ports of Holland aforesaid from any port of the United States, shall be molested or interrupted in her voyage by the commanders of his majesty's ships or privateers.

And it is further ordered, that

no

no vessels of the United States, which shall have cleared out from any port of America previous to the 20th of July next, for any other permitted port, and shall, during her voyage, have changed her destination, in consequence of information of the said provisional agreement, and shall be proceeding to any of the ports of Holland aforesaid, shall be molested or interrupted by the commanders of any of his majesty's ships or privateers, unless such vessel shall have been informed of this order on her voyage, and shall have been warned not to proceed to any of the ports of Holland aforesaid, and shall, notwithstanding such warning, be found attempting to proceed to any such port.

And it is further ordered, that after the said 9th day of June next, no vessel of the said United States which shall have cleared out, or be destined to any of the ports of Holland from any other port or place not subject to the restrictions of the said order of the 26th of April last, after notice of such provisional agreement as aforesaid, shall be molested or interrupted in her voyage by the commanders of his majesty's ships or privateers, provided such vessel shall have so cleared out previous to actual notice of this order at such place of clearance, or in default of proof of actual notice previous to the like periods of time after the date of this order, as are fixed for constructive notice of his majesty's order of the 11th of Nov. 1807, by the orders of the 25th Nov. 1807, and of the 18th of May, 1808, at certain places and latitudes therein mentioned, unless such vessel shall have been informed of this order on her voyage, and warned by any of his majesty's ships or privateers not to proceed to any port of Holland, and shall, notwithstanding such warning, at-

tempt to proceed to any such port.

And his majesty is pleased further to order, and it is hereby ordered, that the said several orders of the 7th of Jan. and 11th of Nov. 1807, as altered by the said order of the 26th of April last, shall also be suspended, so far as necessary for the protection of vessels of the said United States which shall clear out, to any port not declared to be under the restriction of blockade from any port of Holland between the 9th day of June and the 1st day of July next, provided always, that nothing therein contained in the present order shall extend, or be construed to extend to protect any vessels or their cargoes, that may be liable to condemnation or detention for any other cause than the violation of the aforesaid orders of the 7th of Jan. and the 11th of Nov. 1807, as altered by the said order of the 26th of April last.

Provided also, that nothing in the order contained shall extend, or be construed to extend, to protect any vessel which shall attempt to enter any port actually blockaded by any of his majesty's ships of war.

And the right hon. the lords commissioners of his majesty's treasury, his majesty's principal secretaries of state, the lords commissioners of the admiralty, and the judge of the high court of admiralty, and the judges of the court of vice-admiralty are to give the necessary directions herein as to them may respectively appertain.

STEPHEN COTTRELL

PARIS.

May, 27, 1809.

The following is the Proclamation dispersed by the Archduke John, on his entrance into Italy:—
"Italian

“Italians!—Give ear to the voice of truth and reason. These tell you that you are the slaves of France; that for her you waste your gold and your blood The kingdom of Italy is a mere dream, a vain name. The conscription, the burthens, the oppressions of every kind, the nothingness of your political existence; these alone are realities.

“Reason also tells you, that in such a state of degradation, you can neither be esteemed, remain at peace, nor be Italians. Do you wish to be once more Italians? Unite, then, your hearts, and your power to the generous arms of the Emperor Francis. At this moment he causes a powerful body to descend into Italy. He sends them, not to gratify an idle thirst of conquest, but to defend himself, and secure the independence of all the nations of Europe, which are threatened by a succession of attacks that allow no doubt of the inevitable slavery prepared for them.

“If God protect the virtuous exertions of the Emperor Francis, and his mighty allies, Italy shall be again happy, and once more respected in Europe. The head of the church will possess again his freedom and his dominions; and a constitution founded on nature and true policy, shall bless the Italian soil, and render it impenetrable to any foreign power.

“It is Francis who promises you so happy and glorious an existence. Europe knows it; the word of this prince is sacred—is as immutable as pure; Heaven speaks through his lips. Awake then, Italians. Rouse yourselves. Of whatever party you have been or now are, fear nothing, for you are Italians. We come not to investigate—to punish; we come to aid—

1809.

to deliver you. Will you remain in the state of confusion in which you are sunken? Will you behave otherwise than the Spaniards, that people of heroes, whose words and actions are in harmony?

“Do you love less than they, your holy religion, your honour, and the name of your nation? Do you abhor less than they, base servitude, because you are seduced into its snares by fraudulent speeches? though the treatment you have experienced has been most opposite to those speeches. Italians! truth and reason say to you, that so favourable an occasion never offered itself, of throwing off the yoke cast upon Italy. They tell you, that if you do not listen to them, you incur the danger arising from a victorious army, which subdues without consideration, a people without a name and without rights; that, on the contrary, if you cling to your deliverers, and conquer with them, Italy will re-assume its station among the great nations of the earth, and may become again what it once was, the first.

“Italians!—a better fate is in your hands; in hands which brought the torch of illumination into every quarter of the globe, and restored to Europe, when sunk in barbarity, the sciences, arts, and morals.

“Ye Milanese, Tuscans, Venetians, Piedmontese, be mindful of the period of your ancient being. The days of peace and prosperity may return to you fairer than ever, if your conduct render you worthy the blessed change.

“Italians!—Have but the will, and you will be Italians again as glorious as your ancestors, as happy and contented as you ever were in the fairest epoch of your history.

“JOHN, Archduke of Austria.”

(S)

SPEECH

* SPEECH OF THE RIGHT HON.
THE SPEAKER.

June 1st, 1809.

MR. WHARTON,

Before you proceed to put the question of reading this bill a first time, I wish to offer myself to your notice:

And although I am at all times unwilling to request the attention of the committee of this house, thinking that I should render them no service by mixing in their general debates, and feeling also the inconvenience of being precluded afterwards by my other duties in this house from explaining or defending my opinions in any subsequent stage of discussion; nevertheless there are some subjects of a paramount importance, upon which I do conceive that I have a personal duty imposed upon me (and perhaps the house may think in some degree an official duty) to deliver the sentiments which I entertain:—And such is the present.

The question now before us, is no less than this—Whether *seats in this house shall be henceforth publicly saleable?*—A proposition, at the sound of which our ancestors would have startled with indignation; but a practice, which in these days and within these walls, in utter oblivion of every former maxim and feeling of parliament, has been avowed and justified.

We are now, however, come to a pass from which we have no retreat. Upon this question we must decide aye or no. To do nothing, is to do every thing. If we forbear to reprobate this traffic, we give it legality and sanction. And unless we now proceed to brand and stig-

matize it by a prohibitory law, I am firmly persuaded that even before the short remnant of this session is concluded, we shall see that seats in this house are advertised for sale by public auction: and we shall have brought a greater scandal upon parliament and the nation than this country has ever known since parliaments have had an existence.

According to the course which these debates have taken, three distinct points have been put in issue: First, whether the traffic be a political evil; in the next place, whether it be any parliamentary offence; and lastly, whether there is any safe and practicable remedy by which this mischief can be put down for the time to come.

Sir, into the first point, whether this be a political evil, I do not mean to enter at any length; nor is it necessary to my purpose.

That the influence of property in maintaining civil order is of the highest importance, no man living can doubt: it is the firmest cement to all the relations of social life, it gives stability to the state, and prosperity to the empire. That the possession of property may, and must, and ought to have a predominating influence in the election of members to serve in this house, I think is equally clear. But, that, abandoning all their legitimate rights of influence, and laying aside all the virtuous and generous motives of friendship, affection, and the fair preference of talents and integrity to fill places of such high public trust, they should go to a shameless and open market; that they should sell the attachment of their friends, neighbours, and dependants, for

* This speech was made in a committee of the whole house upon Mr. Curwen's Reform bill, and is unquestionably a most important document, taken in connexion with the parliamentary business of the present session.

dry and sordid gain; and sell it to utter strangers, of whose qualities they can have no other estimate than the weight of their purses; this does indeed appear to me to be a great political evil, and a great public grievance. It degrades and debases the habits of the higher ranks of life, who confess their own sense of the nature of these transactions, by the concealment with which they seek to cover them; it taints also and contaminates the general character of parliament; and it furnishes the most formidable weapons to those who are professing, and I am willing to believe sincerely professing, to *reform*, but as I fear, are, in truth and in fact, by the tendency of their endeavours, labouring to *subvert* the entire system of our parliamentary representation.

With respect, Sir, to the next question, whether these practices are any parliamentary offence. That it is a high parliamentary offence, every page of our history, statutes, and journals, appears to me to bear evidence.

It is essential to the very idea of elections that they should be free. Such is the ancient language of the statute of Westminster in the reign of Edward the First, speaking of elections in general: such also is the modern language of the Bill of Rights, with reference specifically to the election of members to serve in parliament; and we have a memorable instance in the year immediately following the Revolution, of the sense in which this fundamental principle was understood, in the case of the Cinque Ports; for by a statute in the second of William and Mary, it is not enacted only, but declared, that for the lord warden to nominate or recommend any member to serve in any port or place within his jurisdiction, was a

violation of the freedom of parliaments, and contrary to the ancient laws and constitution of the realm.

In the description of these offences, which constitute a violation of our privileges, there is nothing technically narrow, but the rule is to be tried by its substantial effects. Force, fraud, corrupt practices, and undue influence of any sort, by which the freedom of elections is controlled, have been reprobated in all ages.

These offences, if pursued as matter of personal delinquency, were anciently triable before the committee of privileges; if they touched the seat, they were cognizable in the committee of elections. At a later period, when these committees were united, all such offences were of course tried indiscriminately before the joint jurisdiction. And so things continued until happily the functions of the committee of elections were transferred by the Grenville act to a better tribunal. But the general conservation and vindication of our rights and privileges, except so far as divested by special statute, still resides, as we all know, in the house at large, and its committee of privileges.

Whoever, therefore, looks into the proceedings of all these several jurisdictions, according to their different periods, will find abundant traces of the inquiries which have been instituted, and the censures which have followed upon offences of all these descriptions. And from the period of the Revolution, we may see them exemplified in the prosecutions conducted by Sir Edward Seymour against the directors of the new East-India Company in the reign of king William; in the reports of the secret committee upon the last ten years of Sir Robert

Walpole's administration during the last reign; in the charge brought against Lord North upon the Milbourn Port election; and the general character of these offences is evidenced by all the language of similar proceedings in our own time.

But, Sir, beyond this:—Practices of this description are not only offences by the law of parliament, they have been long since adjudged to be criminal by the common law of the realm.

The bribery of votes was adjudged by the court of king's bench, in the early part of the present reign, to have been a common-law offence, even though no precedents could be adduced to show it, and to have been punishable as such long before its increased prevalence made parliament deem it necessary to restrain it by special statutes. And in like manner any previous agreement or compact to controul the votes of electors (even although the electors are not themselves bribed) has been adjudged to be illegal upon general grounds of policy and jurisprudence.—Such was the case which arose in the burgh of Stirling in the year 1773, where some of the town-council had entered into a corrupt agreement to divide the profits of the burgh, and what they were also pleased to call the parliamentary profits, and to bring no person into the magistracy but such as should vote with them upon all parliamantary elections; under this agreement, elections were had and passed unanimously. But when this agreement was discovered and questioned, although it was manifest that the other electors were neither party nor privy to the agreement, nor had profited thereby, the court of session not only declared the agreement itself to be illegal, unwarrantable, and *contra bonos*

mores, but also that by reason of the undue influence under which such elections were had, all those elections were void and null. This judgment afterwards came by appeal to the house of lords, and was there in November, 1775, affirmed.—At a later date, another question of this sort came before an election committee under the Grenville act from the county of Berwick, in 1781. The petition there stated that two of the candidates had, by themselves and friends, combined to controul the election, by choosing first one of those two candidates who should sit for a certain number of years or sessions, and then that the other should be elected to succeed him. The election committee before whom that case was tried and proved, reported the agreement to be corrupt and illegal, and voided the election.

What, therefore, it remains for us to do is plain. And as our ancestors, when they found the measures of parliament, and the decisions of the common law, were insufficient to restrain the growing practice of bribery to voters, proceeded to superadd the cumulative penalties of the statute law; so also it is for us, who have before us such flagrant proofs that the traffic in seats has broken through the existing checks, to put it down by a new prohibitory law.

And now, Sir, we are brought to the last consideration—whether we can by any safe and practicable remedy suppress the mischief: and of this I have no doubt, if with sincerity and diligence we apply ourselves to the task.

According to my views of this subject, the committee will perceive that I must naturally desire in the first place that our law should be in itself declaratory, lest we should

should impair the principle which we are endeavouring to strengthen. The definition or description of the offence should also be marked with such a degree of precision that we may not include in it things or consequences beyond our own intentions. And the prohibitory provisions should be such as are most analogous to the rest of our election laws upon corresponding cases.

Of course the honourable member who has brought in the present bill will not be surprized that I should think he has fallen short of the true point, in not making it declaratory. As to the main part of his enactments, he will also be prepared for my dissenting from the use of such lax and wide modes of expression as he has employed; a defect into which it is no peculiar reproach for him to have fallen, as our modern forms of legislation have too much involved all our provisions in language so cumbrous, that it is generally difficult to discover their sense and substance, through the multitude of words with which they are overcharged. But beyond this, it is quite impossible for me to consent to that part of his proposed enactment which makes the tenure of seats in this house dependent upon judgments to be obtained in the courts below, or in any way puts the trials of our own rights out of our own accustomed jurisdiction.

With regard to the oath proposed by the honourable gentleman, it is such in its present form as I should entirely object to. I do not know that a proper oath for a proper purpose is in itself an exceptionable provision by law. Nor do I think that for solemnity or importance, so long as any oaths are used in election laws, that any occasion for it could be more suitable; agreeing

as I do very much with Sir William Blackstone in opinion, that the oath, if administered to the elected, would be far more effectual than when given to the elector. Nevertheless, knowing that to many persons any form of oath whatever upon this subject would be highly obnoxious, and not thinking it indispensably necessary to the efficacy of the bill, I should not be disposed to insist upon it.

What I should require would be, that the party who purchased should not reap the profit of his bargain, but should fall under the same disability as that enacted by the act of William the Third, which I think would be improved also, if it excluded him not for that vacancy alone, but for the whole parliament. The party who received the price of his venality should also of course forfeit it, with any further penalty which it might be thought right to superadd.

And, beyond this, I would think it a proper course to declare it by positive law, what is implied by the judgments which I have already cited—that by such traffic each party becomes guilty of a misdemeanour.

Upon the whole, Sir, that for which I am most anxious is the establishment of the principle; being firmly persuaded that honourable minds, which may have hitherto deviated from what I think was the straight path of their duty, or may have been made to vacillate by the practices which they saw prevailing around them with impunity—will shrink from them with abhorrence when they find them condemned by a specific law: and other men, if actuated by motives less honourable, will be restrained by fears not less efficacious.

I shall therefore listen with satisfaction

faction to any amendment that goes this length, accompanied by such brief and distinct provisions as may give a reasonable security that its execution will be accomplished.— And I shall be contented to lay aside for the present all questions of doubtful policy or difficult expressions; thinking it better to reserve them for future experience, and, if necessary, for future legislation.

I would presume also to recommend this course to the house, as the most prudent and most likely to contribute to the further progress of this bill, and its ultimate passing into a law; on my own part most cordially and earnestly hoping for its success, as a measure which has now become indispensable to the honour of this house and of the country.

SWEDEN.

Proclamation by the new King, on his ascending the Throne.

We, Charles XIII. by the grace of God, King of Sweden, &c. to all our faithful subjects, &c. &c. greeting.—When, under Divine Providence, we assumed, some time ago, the provisional government of our beloved native country, committed to us by the states of our realm, we immediately called the attention of the Diet to the indispensable and important task of framing a new constitution, calculated to promote the prosperity, tranquillity, and welfare of the country, by an irrevocable union between the mutual rights and duties of the king and people of Sweden.—The states having informed us that they have not only performed the important task committed to them by us, and the confidence of their fellow-subjects, but also that they have chosen us king of Sweden, and of the Goths and Vandals, re-

questing our approbation of that choice, the cordial and loyal manner in which that election was made did not allow us to decline its acceptance. Relying on the Omnipotent, who explores the inmost recesses of the human heart, and knows the sincerity and purity of our sentiments, moved by the most fervent love and zeal for our native land, which can only cease with our existence, and trusting we shall be most powerfully supported by the loyal attachment of the noble Swedish nation, we have therefore accepted the crown and sceptre of Sweden.—It is far more gratifying to our feelings, to have been called upon by the free and uncontrouled voice of the people; to become their king, their protector, and defender, than if we had ascended the ancient Swedish throne merely by right of hereditary succession. We shall govern the kingdom and people of Sweden, as an indulgent parent does his children; with implicit confidence in the honest; with forbearance towards those who err undeliberately; uprightness towards all; and when the day arrives, the near approach of which is announced by our advanced age, which shall put an end to our worldly cares, we will hail our last moments with the pious resignation of the just, and close it by blessing you all.

(Signed)

CHARLES.

GUST. SUYDSJELKD, Aulic Chancellor.

Council Hall, Stockholm Castle,
June 6, 1809.

PROCLAMATION,

Dated Frankfort, June 18.

Frederick-Augustus, by the grace of God, King of Saxony, &c.—Divine Providence has been so beneficent to us, that since we have been called to the government, we have

had

had only the agreeable duty of offering him the homage of the sincerest gratitude; and we have discharged this duty with so much the more ardour, as our heart feels no greater joy than in knowing that they are happy whose felicity is intrusted to us. We had last year especially reason to bless the goodness of God, when a generous conqueror restored to us our estates, which are already lost; and this felicity became more precious, when a personal acquaintance with this great man, added to affection and the sincerest gratitude, our admiration and our veneration of his great qualities, which have never been sufficiently appreciated; and fixed the basis of a genuine esteem, on which our mutual alliance is as firmly established as on treaties, and which renders it doubly indissoluble. Even at the present moment of trouble, it was for me a great consolation to behold our country enjoy an almost perfect tranquillity, while the torch of war was enkindled in other states, and there spread its ravages anew. We believed it necessary to abandon for a time our good city of Dresden, and fix our abode at Leipsic, which is no great distance. We hoped that we could continue there, to apply our labours to the government of our faithful subjects; the more so, as, according to the course the war had taken, an hostile invasion of our country was by no means probable.—We were so much the more painfully affected at beholding this hope vanish, and being obliged to remove from Leipsic to a considerable distance, in order to place ourselves out of danger, by avoiding the route in which the troops which were advancing from Bohemia, upon Saxony and Franconia, might seize our person and royal family.—But we live in the entire confidence that Divine Providence will bless our

efforts for the deliverance of our country, and that, supported by the forces of his majesty the king of Westphalia, our faithful neighbour and ally, we shall return.—We believe it to be our duty, faithful and beloved Saxons, to impart this confidence to you, removed as we are from you, in order to tranquillize you. In the mean while we thank you publicly for supporting your situation with tranquillity and dignity, that you have lent no ear to the enemy, and in this given new proof of that love and attachment towards us which are our felicity, and which we feel equally for you.—It is therefore with confidence that we exhort you to attach yourselves more and more to our principles, which, hitherto, thanks to God, have always constituted the happiness of the country, and at the same time to consider and avert the evils which the ill-intentioned might seek to scatter among you, by propagating an erroneous doctrine.—For it cannot be unknown to you, that there are in our dominions, people weak, seduced, or wicked, who not only do not approve of our system, and the principles on which we have only from conviction adopted it, but who dare to avow, and even act in a contrary manner.—We seriously enjoin by these presents all the authorities of our kingdom to observe with great attention those who render themselves suspicious by a like mode of thinking, and especially those who disturb peace by rash discourse, or by open acts, as well as those who spread intelligence which may disquiet well-intentioned citizens, and deprive our constant efforts for the permanent tranquillity of our subjects, of a part of their effect; and, in general, we charge them to neglect nothing in order that our subjects may conduct themselves according to

to the principles above announced, and that our benevolent intentions may be entirely fulfilled.—In testimony of which, we have signed these presents with our hand, and annexed our royal seal. Given at Frankfort on the Maine, June 18, 1809:

FREDERICK AUGUSTUS.

June 21.

The usher of the black rod was sent to the house of commons, to desire the attendance of that honourable house to hear his majesty's commission read, for giving the royal assent to the local militia regulation bill, and to the commission for proroguing the parliament; both of which being done, the lord chancellor, in the name of the commission, and by order of his majesty, addressed the following speech to both houses of parliament.

My lords, and gentlemen,

We are commanded by his majesty to acquaint you, that his majesty has great satisfaction in being enabled, by the state of the public business, to release you from laborious attendance in parliament. His majesty doubts not that on your return into your respective counties, you will carry with you a disposition to inculcate, both by instruction and example, a spirit of attachment to those established laws, and that happy constitution, which it has ever been his majesty's anxious wish to support and to maintain, and upon which, under Providence, depend the welfare and prosperity of this kingdom.

Gentlemen of the house of commons,

We have it in command from his majesty to thank you for the liberal provision which you have made for the services of the present year; and to express the satisfaction

which his majesty derives from your having been enabled to provide for those services without any great or immediate addition to the burthens upon his people. His majesty particularly commands us to acknowledge your prompt attention to his wishes respecting an increased provision for the poorer clergy; an object in the highest degree interesting to his majesty's feelings, and deserving the favourable consideration of parliament.

“ My lords, and gentlemen,

The atrocious and unparalleled act of violence and treachery by which the Ruler of France attempted to surprise and to enslave the Spanish nation, while it has excited in Spain a determined and unconquerable resistance against the usurpation and tyranny of the French government, has, at the same time, awakened in other nations of Europe a determination to resist, by a new effort, the continued and increasing encroachments on their safety and independence. Although the uncertainty of all human events, and the vicissitudes attendant upon war, forbid too confident an expectation of a satisfactory issue to the present struggle against the common enemy of Europe, his majesty commands us to congratulate you upon the splendid and important success which has recently crowned the arms of the emperor of Austria, under the able and distinguished conduct of his imperial highness the Archduke Charles. To the efforts of Europe for its own deliverance, his majesty has directed us to assure you, that he is determined to continue his most strenuous assistance and support, convinced that you will agree with him in considering that every exertion for the re-establishment of the independence and security of other nations is no less

is conducive to the true interests
 and it is becoming the character
 and honour of Great Britain.

The parliament was then pro-
 ceeded.

PROCLAMATION TO THE POLES.

Frederick Augustus, King of Sax-
 y, &c. Poles!—Already has the
 my, which had invaded our duchy
 Warsaw, been forced by the
 stories of our great regenerator,
 and the valour of our troops, to
 abandon the capital and return to
 own territory.—After having ren-
 dered thanks to Divine Providence
 for the signal protection it has grant-
 ed us, it becomes our duty to employ
 the first moments of the re-establish-
 ment of our government, in express-
 ing the sentiments which have been
 excited in us by the patriotism and
 attachment which the nation has so
 splendidly displayed in that moment
 of calamity. The enemy had en-
 tered the country with a numerous
 army. It appeared scarcely possible
 to resist him; but he soon learnt the
 power of courage, when led by a
 chief so brave and able as our minis-
 ter of war, prince Poniatowski.—
 Poles! Your battalions, which the
 great hero has created, and in whom
 he has inspired that valiant spirit,
 the best proofs of which are before
 your eyes, have shewn they were
 worthy their creator. Inferior in
 number, they not only resisted the
 enemy, but successfully attacked
 him.—They have carried victory into
 the provinces, and have every where
 covered themselves with glory. The
 whole nation have on their part
 shewn that the valour and patriotism
 of the ancient Poles is theirs. The
 invasion of a numerous enemy, far
 from intimidating them, has only
 stimulated them to voluntary and

extraordinary offers to sacrifice their
 private fortunes. They have wholly
 devoted themselves to the defence of
 their country. The departments
 have emulated each other, in filling
 the ranks of the armies, and fur-
 nishing the necessary contributions.
 They have proved that the love of
 their country is a national quality,
 and have rendered themselves worthy
 to become models of that quality.
 Providence has also crowned those
 generous efforts with success.—Our
 council of state has, by its zeal and
 wisdom, seconded by all the other
 constitutional authorities, succeeded
 in maintaining the measures of the
 government, as far as circumstances
 would permit.—Poles! Your coun-
 try owes its safety to you; it owes
 to you the approbation of your great
 regenerator, whose notice the brave
 conduct of the army, and the ardent
 zeal of the nation, will not have
 escaped. It owes to you increased
 respect among its neighbours, and
 the glory which the sovereign feels
 in reigning over such a nation.—
 Though at a distance our heart has
 ever been with you, your situation
 was ever present to us. Your fidelity
 and attachment to us, has increased,
 if possible, ours to you; and we have
 been unable to afford you the assist-
 ance our heart desired: it was with
 pain we were prevented by circum-
 stances.—Polish people!—Tran-
 quillity is restored to you, and the
 constitutional government. Our
 great solicitude shall be to endeavour
 to heal the wounds the war has oc-
 casioned, reward merit, and restore
 order; which your future happiness
 requires. On your part you will
 contribute to this by entire confi-
 dence in the government; which
 will be guided by our paternal inten-
 tions.—Given at Frankfort on the
 Maine June 24, 1809.

FREDERICK AUGUSTUS.

AMERICA.

AMERICA.

Proclamation of the President to the United States of America. Dated Washington city, Thursday, August 10, 1809.

Whereas, in consequence of a communication from his Britannic majesty's envoy extraordinary and minister plenipotentiary, declaring that the British orders in council, of January and November, 1807, would be withdrawn on the 10th of June last, (and by virtue of which an act of congress was passed, entitled "an act to interdict the commercial intercourse between the United States and Great Britain and France, and their dependencies, and for other purposes") I, James Madison, president, &c. did issue a proclamation, on the 19th of April, last, declaring that the orders in council aforesaid would be withdrawn on the 10th of June, after which the trade might be renewed; and as it is now officially made known to me, that the orders in council are not withdrawn, agreeably to the declaration aforesaid, I do hereby proclaim the same, and that the acts above still remain in force.

JAMES MADISON.

SWEDEN.

Message relative to the pension which the States are to allow to the late King, Gustavus Adolphus, his queen and children.

Dated Stockholm, Aug. 15.

The period is now fast approaching, when a prince, who lately governed Sweden, but whose claim to the Swedish crown has been solemnly cancelled by the unanimous resolution of the states of the realm, must absent himself from this coun-

try. His own spontaneous wish agrees, on this point, with what the public tranquillity and security require. His royal majesty has taken the advice of the secret committee on a matter of so much importance, which, however, the state of public affairs does not yet permit his majesty to communicate to the diet, and he, therefore, confines himself at present, to the question—"Whether a pension or yearly allowance, at the states of the realm willing to grant to their late king, his queen and children?" Which question being answered, another will occur relative to the country which it will be most proper to assign for the residence of Gustavus Adolphus and his family. His majesty does not deem it superfluous to add some observations for the states to bear in mind in their deliberations on this subject. The states cannot but be aware, that their decision must bear that stamp of dignified generosity which becomes a noble-minded nation; that misfortune craves respect and that humanity itself commands forgiveness and oblivion of the past. His royal majesty is anxiously desirous that the states of the realm, by deciding the subject under discussion on these principles, should meet his wishes, and thus give pledge to Europe of the purity of the motives which induced Sweden to revise her system of government and renew the structure of the state.

CHARLES.

ITALY.

Proclamation issued by Eugene Napoleon, Arch-Chancellor of the French Empire, Viceroy of Italy, Prince of Venice, and Commander-in-chief of the army of Italy, to the people of

Ty.

Tyrol, dated head-quarters, Villach, Oct. 26th, 1809.

Tyroleans! Peace is concluded between his majesty the emperor of the French, king of Italy, protector of the confederation of the Rhine, my august father and sovereign, and his majesty the Emperor of Austria. Peace therefore prevails every where, except among you; you only do not enjoy its benefits. Listening to perfidious suggestions, you have taken up arms against your laws, and have subverted them, and now you are gathering the bitter fruits of your rebellion; terror governs your cities; illness and misery reign in you; discord is in the midst of you; and disorder every where prevails. His majesty the emperor and king, touched with your deplorable situation, and with the testimonies of repentance which several of you have conveyed to his throne, has expressly consented, in the treaty of peace, to pardon your errors and misconduct. I then bring you peace, since I bring you pardon. But I declare to you, that pardon is granted you only on the condition that you return to your obedience and duty, that you voluntarily lay down your arms, and that you offer no resistance to my troops. Charged with the command of the armies which surround you, I come to receive your submission, or to compel you to submit. The army will be preceded by commissioners appointed by me to hear your complaints, and to do justice to the demands you may have to make. But know that these commissioners can only listen to you when you have laid down your arms. Tyroleans! If your complaints and demands be well founded, I hereby promise that justice shall be done you.

ABSTRACT OF THE NEW CONSTITUTION OF SWEDEN.

§ 1 to 9.—The government of Sweden shall be monarchical and hereditary, with limitation to the issue male. The king must be of the true evangelical religion, and must govern conformably to this constitution, and with and by the advice of a council of state (Stats rad), the members of which are to be appointed by the king, who is wholly exempt from responsibility, but the members are responsible for their advice. The members must be natives of Sweden, and of the true evangelical faith. The council shall consist of nine members, viz. the minister of state for judicial affairs, the minister of state for foreign affairs, six counsellors, of whom three at least must be civil officers, and the chancellor of the court. The secretaries of state shall have a seat in the council, whenever any case belonging to their respective departments shall be under deliberation. A father and a son, or two brothers, cannot be members of the council at the same time. There are four secretaries of state, namely, one for the foreign department, one for the home department, one for the exchequer or financial department, and one for the ecclesiastical department. All the affairs of government (except the diplomatic or foreign relations, and the immediate command of the army and navy) shall be submitted to the consideration and decision of the king, assisted by at least three members, exclusive of the acting secretary, which number is required to constitute a council of state for the transaction of business. A minute shall be made of all the proceedings of the council, every member present shall be unconditionally bound to give his advice, but the privilege of deciding is vested in the

the king, who, by virtue of his prerogative, may assent or dissent from any measure, in opposition to the votes or opinions of all the members. But in the possible event of the decision of his majesty being repugnant to the constitution and laws, the members are required by the most solemn obligation to remonstrate, and in case any member's opinion shall not be duly recorded, such member shall be deemed guilty of counselling and abetting the king in his unconstitutional decision.

§ 9 to 13.—Before any appeal can be made to the king in council, it must be submitted to the secretary of state, and a council specially appointed for hearing it. Ministerial or political affairs are to be considered and decided by the king, who in the exercise of his prerogative must take the advice of his minister of state for foreign affairs, and the chancellor of the council, who are responsible for their advice. The king may conclude treaties with foreign powers, after consulting the said minister of state, and chancellor. The king, previous to his declaring war or concluding peace, must state to the council his motive for so doing, and the members shall give their opinion on the subject under their own responsibility.

§ 13 to 15.—The supreme command of the navy and army is vested in the king; as also the ultimate decision in all matters relative thereto, assisted by the minister of state for either service, who shall be responsible for their advice.

§ 16.—The king cannot deprive, or cause any subject to be deprived, of his life, liberty, honour, or property, without trial and judgment, nor can he harass or persecute any person for his religious opinions, provided the promulgation of them,

or the exercise of his religion, is not injurious to the community.

§ 16 to 27.—Relate to the constitution of a council of justice which is to consist of six noblemen and six commoners, who are to decide in judicial affairs. The king has also two votes, and may pardon criminals, and mitigate or commute punishments.

§ 27 to 31.—The king, in the council of state, is to appoint persons to civil and military offices; as also the archbishop and bishops, in the manner formerly done.

§ 32.—Ambassadors, envoys, &c. to foreign courts, are to be nominated by the king, in the presence of the minister of state for foreign affairs, and the chancellor of the court.

§ 32 to 35.—Describe the manner of appointing civil and military officers, and what officers holding situations of ostensible trust and confidence, may be removed at the pleasure of the king, having previously signified his pleasure to the council.

§ 35 to 38.—The king cannot remove a judge from his office, except for just cause and proof of criminality. The king is to have the privilege of creating noblemen, whose eldest sons and heirs only are to inherit the family title. All decrees must be countersigned by a secretary of state.

§ 38 to 40.—The king shall not quit the kingdom without consulting the council, who, in the event of his departure, is to govern in his absence.

§ 40 to 48.—Declare, that the prince or king shall be of age at 21, and on his not having heirs male the diet shall be assembled and choose a successor. No prince of the blood can marry without the king's

ing's consent, neither the crown prince nor the other princes can hold any hereditary office. The king appoints all his officers of the court and household.

§ 49.—The states of the kingdom are to be assembled every fifth year at Stockholm.

§ 49 to 90.—Regulate the mode of electing members of the diet.—The king cannot impose any taxes without the consent of the diet, and the bank is under the immediate controul of the states of the kingdom.—The king cannot negotiate loans within the kingdom, nor in foreign countries; nor can he sell, dispose of, or alienate, any province belonging to the kingdom, nor alter the value of the current coin.

§ 90 to 94.—Provide, that if the king continue absent more than a twelvemonth, the diet must be assembled, and the king be informed hereof. That when the successor is not of age, the diet must be assembled, and appoint a regency to govern during his minority. When the king is eighteen years of age, he is to attend the several courts of justice, without, however, taking any part in the decisions.

§ 94 to 107.—Explain what is to be done, should the members of the council neglect assembling the diet, or act contrary to their duty; and enjoins, that at each diet a committee shall be appointed for inquiring into the conduct of the ministers, council, and secretaries of state.

§ 108.—Regards a committee for superintending the liberty of the press.

§ 108 to 114.—State, that no diet can be of longer duration than three months, except business shall require it. No man, while a member of the diet, can be accused, or deprived of his liberty, for his

actions or expressions in his respective state, unless the particular state to which he belong shall demand it. No officer of the crown must influence, by his authority, in the election of a member of the diet, &c.

SPAIN.

Manifesto, fixing the days when the General Cortes of the Spanish Monarchy are to be convoked and held; dated Royal Alcazar of Seville, Oct. 28, 1809.

Spaniards!—By a combination of events as singular as fortunate, it has seemed good to providence, that in this terrible crisis you shall not advance a step towards independence without likewise advancing one towards liberty. A foolish and feeble tyranny, in order to rivet your fetters, and aggravate your chains, prepared the way for French despotism, which, with the terrible apparatus of its arms and victories, endeavoured to subject you to a yoke of iron. It at first exhibited itself, like every new tyranny, under a flattering form, and its political impostors presumed they should gain your favour by promising you reforms in the administration, and announcing, in a constitution framed at their pleasure, the empire of the laws. A barbarous and absurd contradiction, worthy certainly of their insolence. Would they have us believe that the moral edifice of the liberty and fortune of a nation can be securely founded on usurpation, iniquity, and treachery? But the Spanish people, who were the first of modern nations to recognize to the true principles of the social equilibrium, that people who enjoyed before any other the prerogatives and advantages of civil liberty, and knew to oppose to arbitrary power the eternal barrier directed

rected by justice, will borrow from no other nation maxims of prudence and political precaution; and tell those impudent legislators, that they will not acknowledge as laws the artifices of intriguers, nor the mandates of tyrants. Animated by this generous instinct, and inflamed with the indignation excited by the perfidy with which you were invaded, you ran to arms, without fearing the terrible vicissitudes of so unequal a combat, and fortune, subdued by your enthusiasm, rendered you homage, and bestowed on you victory in reward for your valour. The immediate effect of these first advantages was the re-composition of the state, at that time divided into so many factions as provinces. Our enemies thought that they had sown among us the deadly germ of anarchy, and did not advert that Spanish judgment and circumspection were always superior to French machiavelism. Without dispute, without violence, a supreme authority was established; and the people, after having astonished the world, with the spectacle of their sublime exaltation and their victories, filled it with admiration and respect by their moderation and discretion.

The central junta was installed, and its first care was to announce to you, that if the expulsion of the enemy was the first object of its attention, the inferior and permanent felicity of the state was the principal in importance: to leave it plunged into the flood of abuses, prepared for its own ruin by arbitrary power, would have been, in the eyes of our present government, a crime as enormous as to deliver you into the hands of Buonaparté; therefore, when the turbulence of war permitted, it caused to resound in your ears the name of your Cortes, which to us have ever been the bulwark of

civil liberty, and the throne of national majesty, a name heretofore pronounced with mystery by the learned, with distrust by politicians, and with horror by tyrants, but which henceforth signify in Spain the indestructible base of the monarchy, the most secure supports of the rights of Ferdinand VII. and of his family, the right for the people, and the government an obligation.

That moral resistance, as general as sublime, which has reduced our enemies to confusion and despair in the midst of their victories, must not receive less reward. Those battles which are lost, those armies which are destroyed, not without producing new battles, creating new armies, and again displaying the standard of loyalty on the ashes and ruins which the enemies abandon; those soldiers who, dispersed in one action, return to offer themselves for another; that populace which, despoiled of almost all they possessed, returned to their homes to share the wretched remains of their property with the defenders of their country; that concert of lamentable and despairing groans and patriotic songs; that struggle in fine, of ferocity and barbarity on the one hand, and of resistance and invincible constancy on the other, present a whole as terrible as magnificent, which Europe contemplated with astonishment, and which history will one day record in letters of gold for the admiration and example of posterity. A people so magnanimous and generous ought only to be governed by laws which are truly such, and which shall bear the great character of public consent and common utility—a character which they can only receive by emanating from the august assembly which has been announced to you. The junta had proposed that it should be held during the whole of the ensuing year;

sooner if circumstances should permit. But in the time which has intervened since this resolution, a variety of public events have agitated the minds of the people, and the difference of opinions relative to the organization of the government, and the re-establishment of our fundamental laws, has recalled the attention of the junta to these important objects with which it has latterly been so profoundly occupied. It has been commended on the one hand, that the present government should be converted into a regency of three or four persons: and this opinion has been represented as supported by some of our ancient laws, applicable to our present situation. But the situation in which the kingdom was, when the French threw off the mask of friendship, to execute their treacherous usurpation, is singular in our history, and cannot have been foreseen in our institutions. Neither the infancy, nor the insanity, nor even the captivity of the prince, in the usual way in which these evils occur, can be compared with our present case, and the deplorable situation to which it has reduced us. Our political position entirely new requires political forms and principles likewise entirely new. To expel the French, to restore to his liberty and his throne our adored king, and to establish solid and permanent bases of good government, are the maxims which gave the impulse to our revolution, are those which support and direct it; and that government will be the best which shall most promote and fulfil these three wishes of the Spanish nation. Does the regency of which that law speaks promise us that security? What inconveniencies, what dangers, how many divisions, how many parties, how many ambitious pretensions, within and without the kingdom; how

much, and how just, discontent in our Americas, now called to have a share in the present government! What would become of our Cortes, our liberty, the cheering prospects of future welfare and glory which now present themselves? What would become of the object most valuable and dear to the Spanish nation—the preservation of the rights of Ferdinand? The advocates for this institution ought to shudder at the immense danger to which they exposed themselves, and to bear in mind, that by it they afforded to the tyrant a new opportunity of buying and selling them. Let us bow with reverence to the venerable antiquity of the law; but let us profit by the experience of ages. Let us open our annals and trace the history of our regencies. What shall we find? a picture equally melancholy and frightful, of desolation, of civil war, of rapine, and of human depravity, in unfortunate Castile.

Doubtless, in great states, power is more beneficially exercised by few than by many. Secresy in deliberation, unity in concert, activity in measures, and celerity in execution, are indispensable requisites for the favourable issue of the acts of government, and are properties of a concentrated authority only. The supreme junta has therefore just concentrated its own with that prudent circumspection which neither exposes the state to the oscillations consequent upon every change of government, nor materially affects the unity of the body which is entrusted with it. Henceforth a section composed of the removable members, will be specially invested with the necessary authority to direct those measures of the executive power, which from their nature require secresy, energy, and dispatch. Another opinion hostile to the regency,

gency, equally contradicts whatever innovation may be attempted to be made in the political form which the government has at present, and objects to the intended Cortes as an insufficient representation, if they are constituted according to the ancient formalities, as ill-timed and perhaps hazardous, in respect to present circumstances; in short as useless, since it supposes that the superior juntas, erected immediately by the people, are their real representatives. But the junta had expressly declared to the nation, that its first attention in the great object would be occupied with the number, mode, and class with which the meeting of this august assembly in the present situation of affairs should be carried into effect; and after this declaration it is quite superfluous, not to say malicious, to suspect that future Cortes are to be confined to the rigid and exclusive forms of our ancient ones. Yes, Spaniards, you are going to have your Cortes, and the national representation will in them be as perfect and full as it can and ought to be in an assembly of such high importance and eminent dignity. You are going to have Cortes, and to have them immediately, because the urgent situation in which the nation is placed, imperiously demands it, and at what time, gracious God, can it adopt this measure better than at present? When an obstinate war has exhausted all the ordinary means; when the egotism of some and the ambition of others deliberate, and paralyze the efforts of the government, by their opposition or indifference; when they seek to eradicate the essential principle of the monarchy, which is union; when the Hydra of Federalism, so happily silenced the preceding year by the creation of the central power, dares again to raise its poisonous head,

and endeavours to precipitate into the dissolution of anarchy; when the subtilty of our enemies is watching the moment when our divisions disunite us, to destroy the state, and to erect their throne on the ruins which our distractions afford them—This is the time—this, to collect on one point the national dignity and honour, and when the Spanish people may will and decree the extraordinary surplus which a powerful nation ever has within it for its salvation. It alone can encounter and put them in motion; it alone can encourage the timidity of some and restrain the ambition of others; it alone will suppress importunate vanity, puerile pretensions, and infuriated passions, which, unless prevented, go to tear in pieces the government. It will, in fine, give to Europe a fresh example of its religion, its circumspection, and its discretion, in the just and moderate use which it is about to make of this glorious liberty in which it is constituted. Thus it is that the supreme junta which immediately recognized this national representation as a right and proclaimed it as a reward, now invokes and implores it as the most necessary and efficacious remedy, and has therefore resolved that the general Cortes of the monarchy, announced in the decree of the 22nd May, shall be convoked on the 1st day of January in the next year, in order to enter on their august functions the first day of March following. When that happy day has arrived the junta shall say to the representatives of the nation:

Ye are met together, O fathers of your country! and re-established in all the plenitude of your rights after a lapse of three centuries when despotism and arbitrary power dissolved you, in order to subject this nation to all the evils of servitude;

tude. The aggression which we have suffered, and the war which we maintain, are the fruits of the most shameful oppression and the most unjust tyranny. The provincial juntas, who were able to resist and repulse the enemy in the first impetus of his invasion, invested the supreme junta with the sovereign authority, which they exercised for a time, to give unity to the state and concentrate its power. Called to the exercise of this authority, not by ambition or intrigue, but by the unanimous voice of the provinces of the kingdom, the individuals of the supreme junta shewed themselves worthy of the high confidence reposed in them, by employing all their vigilance and exertions for the preservation and prosperity of the state. The magnitude of our efforts will be apparent from the consideration of the enormity of the evil which preceded. When the power was placed in our hands, our armies, half formed, were unprovided and destitute of every thing, our treasury was empty, and our resources uncertain and distant. The despot of France, availing himself of the tranquillity in which the north then was, poured upon the Peninsula the military power under his command, the most formidable that has been known in the most warlike legions, better provided, and above all more numerous than others, rushed on every side, though much to their cost, against our armies, destitute of the same expertness and confidence. A new inundation of barbarians who carried desolation through all the provinces of which they took possession, was the consequence of these reverses, and the ill-closed wounds of our unfortunate country began painfully to open and pour with blood in torrents. The state thus lost half its strength; and

when the junta, bound to save the honour, the independence, and the unity of the nation from the impetuous invasion of the tyrant, took refuge in Andalusia, a division of 30,000 men repaired to the walls of Saragossa, to bury themselves in its ruins. The army of the centre being thus deprived of a great part of its strength, did not give to its operations that activity and energy which must have had very different results from those of the battle of Ales. The avenues of the Sierra Morena and the banks of the Tagus were only defended by ill-armed handfuls of men to whom could scarcely be given the name of armies. The junta, however, by means of activity and sacrifices, rendered them such, so routed and dispersed in the two battles of Ciudad Real and Metellin, instead of despairing of the country, they redoubled their efforts, and in a few days collected and opposed to the enemy 70,000 infantry and 12,000 cavalry. These forces have since fought, it is true, with ill success, but always with gallantry and glory. The creation, the reparation, and the subsistence of these armies have more than absorbed the considerable supplies which have been sent us by our brethren in America. We have maintained in the free provinces unity, order, and justice; and in those occupied by the enemy we have exerted our endeavours to preserve, though secretly, the fire of patriotism and the bonds of loyalty. We have vindicated the national honour and independence in the most complicated and difficult diplomatic negotiations; and we have made head against adversity, without suffering ourselves to despair, ever trusting that we should overcome it by our constancy. We have, without doubt, committed errors, and we would

willingly, were it possible, redeem them with our blood: but in the confusion of events, among the mountains of difficulties which surround us, who could be certain of always being in the right? Could we be responsible because one body of troops wanted valour, and another confidence; because one general has less prudence, and another less good fortune? Much, Spaniards, is to be attributed to our inexperience, much to circumstances, but nothing to our intention. That ever has been to deliver our unfortunate king from slavery, and preserve to him a throne for which the Spanish people have made such sacrifices, and to maintain it free, independent, and happy. We have, from the time of our institution, promised him a country; we have decreed the abolition of arbitrary power, from the time we announced the re-establishment of our Cortes. Such is, Spaniards, the use we have made of the unlimited power and authority confided to us; and when your wisdom shall have established the basis and form of government most proper for the independence and good of the state, we will resign the authority into the hands you shall point out, contented with the glory of having given to the Spaniards the dignity of a nation legitimately constituted. May this solemn and magnificent assembly be productive of efficacious means, energy, and fortune; may it be an immense extinguishable volcano, from which may flow torrents of patriotism to revivify every part of this vast monarchy, to inflame all minds with that sublime enthusiasm which produces the safety and glory of nations, and the despair of tyrants; and yourselves, noble fathers of the country, to the elevation of your high duties, and Spain exalted with

you to an equally brilliant destiny, shall see returned into her bosom, for her happiness, Ferdinand VII. and his unfortunate family: shall see her sons enter on the path of prosperity and glory which they ought henceforth to pursue, and receive the crown of the sublime and almost divine efforts which they are making.

Marquis of ASTORGA, President.

PEDRO DE RIVERO, Sec.-Gen.

CITY JUBILEE ADDRESS TO THE
KING, Nov. 1. 1809.

To the King's most excellent Majesty:

The humble and dutiful Address of the Lord Mayor, Aldermen, and Commons of the City of London, in Common Council assembled:

"Most gracious Sovereign: We, the lord mayor, aldermen, and commons, of the city of London in common council assembled, approach your majesty's sacred person with our most lively and unfeigned congratulations on the recent anniversary of your majesty's accession to the throne of these realms; with joy and gladness we hail the day on which your majesty entered into the fiftieth year of your majesty's reign, not only over the persons, but in the hearts of your majesty's subjects. When it pleased the almighty Ruler of Princes to place the sceptre in your majesty's hands, the brave, free, and loyal people, whom your majesty was ordained to govern, received with pleasure your majesty's first declaration to the great council of the nation, that, "born and educated a Briton, the peculiar happiness of your majesty's life would ever consist in promoting the welfare of your people, and your majesty's resolution to maintain our most excellent constitution, both in church and state, with an assurance that the civil and religious rights

rights of the subject were equally dear to your majesty with the most valuable prerogatives of the crown." We experience and acknowledge the blessings of this security to our religion and laws, and that great charter of liberties which, in virtue of the glorious Revolution, your majesty's illustrious house was chosen to defend. Through the lapse of nearly half a century, your majesty has proved yourself, on every occasion, unwearied in the maintenance and practice of all the principles so graciously pledged. It is a proud subject for your majesty's faithful citizens of London to record, that in the midst of all our unexampled struggles, your majesty is enabled to say, now, as at the commencement of your majesty's reign, that your majesty can see with joy of heart the commerce of these kingdoms, that great source of our riches, and fixed object of your majesty's never-failing care and protection, flourishing to an extent unknown in any former war. Deeply impressed with gratitude to Almighty God for the innumerable blessings he has been pleased to pour down upon this highly-favoured nation, and more particularly for his wonderful and great goodness, in having continued his divine protection to your majesty until this joyful period, we, your majesty's faithful citizens of London, have implored heaven to accept our fervent prayers of praise and thanksgiving, and to continue that same providential care and protection to your majesty for many years yet to come. Believe, Sire, that it is the warmest wish and most fervent prayer of your majesty's citizens of London, that Providence may long continue to this nation so distinguishing a mark of divine favour, and that in the fulness of time,

when your majesty shall be called from your earthly to a celestial crown, the memory and example of so beloved a sovereign may secure to a grateful people the imitation of your majesty's virtues, in the successors of your royal house, till time shall be no more.

Signed by order of the court,

HENRY WOODTHORPE."

To which address his majesty was pleased to return the following most gracious answer:—"I thank you for this testimony of your zeal and affection for me and my government. It has ever been my anxious care to maintain the rights and privileges of every class of my subjects; and it is a great satisfaction to me to reflect, that, in the midst of all our unexampled struggles, and notwithstanding the duration of the wars in which, for the safety of my people, I have been engaged, the commerce and manufactures of my city of London have been carried to an extent unknown at any former period."

They were all received very graciously, and had the honour to kiss his majesty's hand. After which his majesty was pleased to create the lord mayor a baronet, and conferred the honour of knighthood on William Plomer, esq. alderman.

Proclamation of the Junta, dated Royal Alcazar of Seville, Nov. 21, 1809.

Spaniards! — Our enemies announce, as positively certain, a peace in Germany, and the circumstances which accompany this notice give it a character of truth which leaves little room for doubt. They already threaten us with the powerful reinforcements which they suppose to be marching to complete our ruin; already, probably elated with

the favourable aspect which their affairs in the north have assumed, they insolently exhort us to submit to the clemency of the conqueror, and tamely bow our necks to the yoke. No, servants of Buonaparté! [the address afterwards continues,] placed as we are by your baseness, between ignominy and death, what choice would you wish a brave nation to make, but to defend itself to the last extremity? Continue to rob, murder, and destroy, as you have done for these twenty months past; increase that incessantly eternal hatred and thirst for vengeance which we must ever feel towards you. Shall we fall at the feet of the crowned slave whom Buonaparté has sent us for a king, because he burns our temples, distributes our virgins and matrons among his odious satellites, and sends our youth as a tribute to the French Minotaur? Think not, Spaniards, that the Junta addresses you thus to excite your valour by the arts of language—What occasion is there for words, when things speak so plainly for themselves? Your houses are demolished, your temples polluted, your fields ravaged, your families dispersed, or hurried to the grave. Shall we consent to the total destruction of our holy religion in which we were born, and which we have so solemnly sworn to preserve? Our country is laid waste, and we are insulted, and treated as a vile herd of cattle, which are bought and sold, and slaughtered when our master pleases. Remember, Spaniards, the vile and treacherous manner in which this usurper tore from us our king. He called himself his ally, his protector, his friend; he pretended to give him the kiss of peace, but his embraces are the folds of the serpent, which twine round the inno-

cent victim, and drag him to his cavern. Such perfidy is unknown to civilized nations, and scarcely practised among the most barbarous. The sovereign we idolize is condemned to groan in solitude, surrounded by guards and spies. Amidst his sufferings, he can only silently implore the valour of his beloved Spaniards for liberty or vengeance. There can be no peace while these things subsist. That Spain may be free, is the universal wish of the nation. That Spain may be free or that it may become an immense desert, one vast sepulchre, where the accumulated carcasses of French and Spaniards shall exhibit to future ages our glory and their ignominy. But this wretched fate is not to be feared by brave men. Victory, sooner or later, must be the reward of fortitude and constancy. What but these defended the small republics of Greece from the barbarous invasion of Xerxes? What protected the capitol when assailed by the Gauls? What preserved it from the arms of Hannibal? What, in more modern times, rescued the Swiss from German tyranny, and gave independence to Holland? What, in fine, inspired at present the Tyrolese with such heroic resolution, that, though surrounded on every side by enemies and abandoned by their protectors, they take refuge in their rocks, and on the summits of their mountains, and hurl defiance and defeat on the battalions of the conqueror of Dantzic. The God of armies, for whom we suffer, will give us success, and conduct us through all the dangers that surround us to the throne of independence. Spaniards, the Junta announces this to you frankly, that you may not for a moment be ignorant of the danger which threatens your country; it announces

you with confidence that you will renew yourselves worthy of the cause which you defend, and of the admiration of the universe. [The address goes on to exhort the Spanish nation to submit to every privation, and make every sacrifice to save the state.] When the storm rages, the most valuable treasures must be thrown into the sea to save the vessel from sinking. Perish the man whose selfishness can render him wanting in his duty, or induce him to conceal what is necessary to be distributed among his brethren, for the common defence! Perish a thousand times the wretch who can prefer his own interest to the delivery of his country! All such the state will severely punish. Our enemies omit no means which can be employed for our destruction, and shall we neglect any which can conduce to our preservation? There are provinces which have driven out the enemy from among them; and shall not those, who have not yet suffered from such a scourge, sacrifice every thing to reserve themselves from it? Our brave soldiers endure the rigours of winter, and the scorching heats of summer, and nobly encounter all the dangers of battle; and shall we, remaining quietly at our homes, forgetful of their incalculable fatigues, think only of preserving our wishes, and refuse to resign even the least of our luxurious enjoyments? The victory must be ours, if we continue and conclude the great enterprize we have undertaken with the same enthusiasm with which we began it. The colossal mass of force and resistance which we must oppose to our enemy, must be composed of the forces of all, of the sacrifices of all; and then what will it import, that he

pours upon us anew the legions with which he has been successful in Germany, or the swarm of conscripts he endeavours to drag from France? The experience we have obtained in two campaigns, and our very desperation, will consign these hordes of banditti to the same fate which the former have suffered. If some of the monarchs of the North have consented to become the slaves of this new Tamerlane, and at the expense of ages of infamy have purchased a moment's respite till their turn shall come to be devoured, we are resolved to perish or triumph. The alliance we have contracted with the British nation continues, and will continue. That nation has lavished for us its blood and its treasures, and is entitled to our gratitude, and that of future ages.— [The address thus concludes]— Here was drawn, never to be sheathed, the sword of eternal hatred to the execrable tyrant; here was raised, never to be lowered, the standard of independence and justice. Hasten to it all ye who wish not to live under the abominable yoke, ye who cannot enter into a league with iniquity, and ye who are indignant at the cowardly desertion of deluded princes, hasten to us. Here the valiant shall find opportunities of acquiring true honour; the wise and virtuous obtain respect, and the oppressed find an asylum—our cause is the same, the same be our danger, the same our reward. Come hither, and in despite of all the arts, and all the power of this inhuman despot, you shall witness how we will render dim his star, and be ourselves the creators of our own destiny.

(Signed) THE ARCHBISHOP OF
LAODICEA, President.
PEDRO DE RIVER, Secretary.

BRAZILS.

PORTUGUESE GOVERNMENT.

Decree of the Prince Regent of Portugal, dated Rio Janeiro.

Governors of the kingdom of Portugal and the Algarves, friends! I, the Prince Regent, send unto you greeting, as unto those whom I love and prize. It being my principal care to secure, by every means possible, the independence of my dominions, and to deliver them completely from the 'cruel' enemy who so inhumanly, and contrary to the good faith of treaties, has invaded the states of my crown in Europe, and has never ceased making upon them the most unjust war; and as it is, on the one hand, acknowledged that, in such a difficult crisis, nothing can more contribute to the defence of the kingdom than a government composed of a small number of individuals; and as, on the other, it is indispensable to preserve with my ancient and faithful ally, the king of Great Britain, not only the best understanding, but likewise to prove to him, in the most evident manner, that my intentions are not different from those by which he is animated in the promotion of the common cause, that his Britannic Majesty may continue, in the same efficacious manner, to succour Portugal and the whole of the Peninsula; and as it cannot be doubted that this glorious purpose, which I so ardently desire to effect, can only be attained by the most extensive, firm, and reciprocal confidence; and his Britannic Majesty having made known his principles on this subject, and what he judges will most contribute to a happy result, and is most essential to the defence of the kingdom and of the Peninsula; I have seen fit to order that you shall be immediately reduced to the number of three, or two gover-

nors, having a deliberate vote on all objects of the public administration, and that these shall be—the Patriarch Elect of Lisbon, the Marquis das Minas, and the Marquis Monteiro Mor, president of the board da Consciencia e Ordens, Don Francis Xavier da Cunha e Menezes performing the function of president of the Privy Council, to which place he is appointed by the present decree. It is further my pleasure to direct you to acknowledge Sir Arthur Wellesley as Marshal General of my armies, as long as he shall continue in the command of the allied Portuguese and English forces, taking then his rank over Marshal Beresford, as commander-in-chief, and as soon as he shall have been recognized as such, you will invite him to all the sittings of government, in which matters come under discussion which concern the organization of the army, or important determinations, whether financial or others, which it may be necessary to adopt for the defence of the kingdom and of the whole Peninsula: taking his opinion and advice on all subjects of that nature; and should he be absent in such cases, and not be able to assist at your deliberations, you are to apply for his advice in writing, if possible, giving him full information on the subject under discussion, in order that he may be perfectly acquainted with your decision and determination of matters of the above description. In this manner the affairs of government shall be conducted with the utmost energy and harmony, as long as unfortunately it shall not be possible to conclude a permanent and general peace. His Britannic Majesty will thus be convinced that it is my earnest wish to eradicate the general voice of difference of opinion between the powers who make common

common cause; and he will be made perfectly acquainted with the orders which I have given, and shall continue to give, that the most strenuous efforts shall be made to attain that safe and permanent peace which is universally desired, by means of a grand display of all the forces and resources of my kingdom, which I can only flatter myself completely to recover by the most powerful means and exertions.

THE PRINCE.

THE CITY ADDRESS TO THE KING,
AND HIS MAJESTY'S ANSWER.

To the King's most Excellent Majesty.

The humble, loyal, and dutiful Address and Petition of the Lord Mayor, Aldermen, and Commons, of the City of London, in Common Council assembled:

"Most gracious Sovereign,

"We your majesty's most faithful, loyal, and dutiful subjects, the lord-mayor, aldermen, and commons of the city of London, in common council assembled, most humbly approach your majesty's sacred person, in the perfect assurance that your majesty will graciously condescend to receive the suggestions of your faithful and loyal citizens, on subjects which seriously and deeply affect their interests in common with the rest of your majesty's people.

"We have witnessed with deep regret, the disastrous failure of the late expedition, as the magnitude of its equipment had raised the just hopes and expectations of the country to some permanent benefit.

"And we cannot avoid expressing to your majesty the sorrow and indignation with which we are affected by the unhappy dissensions that have prevailed among your majesty's ministers; and our fears that such dissensions may prove

eminently prejudicial to the best interests of the nation.

"Your majesty's faithful citizens, actuated by loyal attachment to your sacred person and illustrious house, and solicitous for the honour of your majesty's arms, and the dignity and solidity of your majesty's councils, are deeply impressed with the necessity of an early and strict inquiry into the causes of the failure of the late expedition; therefore pray your majesty will direct inquiry to be forthwith instituted, in order to ascertain the causes which have occasioned it."

To which address and petition his majesty was graciously pleased to return the following answer:

"I thank you for your expressions of duty and attachment to me and to my family.

"The recent expedition to the Scheldt was directed to several objects of great importance to the interests of my allies, and to the security of my dominions.

"I regret that, of these objects, a part only has been accomplished.

"I have not judged it to be necessary to direct any military inquiry into the conduct of my commanders by sea or land in this conjoint service.

"It will be for my parliament, in their wisdom, to ask for such information, or to take such measures upon this subject as they shall judge most conducive to the public good."

AMERICAN CONGRESS.

The President's Message, on the opening of the Sessions, November 27.

Fellow-citizens of the senate, and of the house of representatives,
At the period of our last meeting,
I had

I had the satisfaction of communicating an adjustment with one of the principal belligerent nations, highly important in itself, and still more so, as presaging a more extended accommodation. It is with deep concern I am now to inform you, that the favourable prospect has been overclouded, by a refusal of the British government to abide by the act of its minister plenipotentiary, and by its ensuing policy towards the United States, as seen through the communications of the ministers sent to replace him.

Whatever pleas may be urged for a disavowal of engagements formed by diplomatic functionaries, in cases where by the terms of the engagements a mutual ratification is reserved; or where notice at the time may have been given of a departure from instructions; or in extraordinary cases, essentially violating the principles of equity; a disavowal could not have been apprehended in a case where no such notice or violation existed, where no such ratification was reserved, and more especially, where, as is now in proof, an engagement, to be executed without any such ratification, was contemplated by the instructions given, and where it had, with good faith, been carried into immediate execution on the part of the United States.

These considerations not having restrained the British government from disavowing the arrangement by virtue of which its orders in council were to be revoked, and the event authorizing the renewal of commercial intercourse having thus not taken place, it necessarily became a question of equal urgency and importance, whether the act of prohibiting that intercourse was not to be considered as remaining in legal force. This question being,

after due deliberation, determined in the affirmative, a proclamation to that effect was issued. It could not but happen, however, that a return to this state of things, from that which had followed an execution of the arrangement by the United States, would involve difficulties. With a view to diminish these as much as possible, the instructions from the secretary of the treasury, now laid before you, were transmitted to the collectors of the several ports. If in permitting British vessels to depart, without giving bonds not to proceed to their own ports, it should appear that the tenor of legal authority has not been strictly pursued, it is to be ascribed to the anxious desire which was felt, that no individuals should be injured by so unforeseen an occurrence: and I rely on the regard of Congress for the equitable interests of our citizens, to adopt whatever further provisions may be found requisite for a general remission of penalties involuntarily incurred.

The recall of the disavowed minister having been followed by the appointment of a successor, hopes were indulged that the new minister would contribute to alleviate the disappointment which has been produced, and to remove the causes which had so long embarrassed the good understanding of the two nations. It could not be doubted, that he would at least be charged with conciliatory explanations of the step which had been taken, and with proposals to be substituted for the rejected arrangement. Reasonable and universal as this expectation was, it also has not been fulfilled. From the first official disclosures of the new minister, it was found that he had received no authority to enter into explanations relative to either branch of the arrangement

arrangement disavowed; nor any authority to substitute proposals, as to that branch which concerned the British orders in council: and, finally, that his proposals with respect to the other branch, the attack on the frigate Chesapeake, were founded on a presumption, repeatedly said to be inadmissible by the United States, that the first step towards adjustment was due from them; and the proposals, at the same time, admitting even a reference to the officer answerable for the murderous aggression, and asserting a claim not less contrary to the British laws, and British practice, than to the principles and obligations of the United States.

The correspondence between the department of state and this minister, will shew how incessantly the features presented in its commencement have been varied in its progress. It will shew also, that forgetting the respect due to all governments, he did not refrain from imputations on this, which required that no further communications should be received from him. The necessity of this step will be made known to his Britannic majesty through the minister plenipotentiary of the United States in London: and it would indicate a want of confidence due to a government which so well understands and expects what becomes foreign ministers near it, not to infer that the misconduct of its own representative will be viewed in the same light in which it has been regarded here. The British government will learn at the same time, that a ready attention will be given to communications, through any other channel which may be substituted. It will be happy, if the change in this respect should be accompanied by a favourable revision of the unfriendly

policy which has been so long pursued towards the United States.

With France, the other belligerent, whose trespasses on our commercial rights have long been the subject of our just remonstrances, the posture of our relations does not connect with the measures taken on the part of the United States, to effect a favourable change. The result of the several communications made to her government, in pursuance of the authorities vested by Congress in the executive, is contained in the correspondence of our ministers at Paris, now laid before you.

By some of the other belligerents, although professing just and amicable dispositions, injuries materially affecting our commerce have not been duly controuled or repressed. In these cases, the interpositions deemed proper on our part have not been omitted. But it well deserves the consideration of the legislature, how far both the safety and the honour of the American flag may be consulted by adequate provisions against that collusive prostitution of it, by individuals unworthy of the American name, which has so much favoured the real or pretended suspicions under which the honest commerce of their fellow-citizens has suffered.

In relation to the powers on the coast of Barbary, nothing has occurred which is not of a nature rather to inspire confidence than distrust, as to the continuance of the existing amity. With our Indian neighbours, the just and benevolent system continued toward them has also preserved peace, and is more and more advancing in habits favourable to their civilization and happiness.

From a statement which will be made by the secretary at war, it will be

be seen that the fortifications on our maritime frontier are in many of the ports completed, affording the defence which was contemplated, and that further time will be required to render complete the works in the harbour of New York, and in some other places. By the enlargement of the works, and the employment of a great number of hands at the public armories, the supply of small arms, of an improving quality, appears to be annually increasing, at a rate, that with those made on private contract, may be expected to go far towards providing for the public exigency.

The act of congress providing for the equipment of our vessels of war having been fully carried into execution, I refer to the statement of the secretary of the navy for the information which may be proper on that subject. To that statement is added a view of the transfers of appropriations, authorized by the act of the session preceding the last, and the grounds on which the transfers were made.

Whatever may be the course of your deliberations on the subject of our military establishments, I should fail in my duty in not recommending to your serious attention the importance of giving to our militia, the great bulwark of our security, and resource of our power, an organization the best adapted to eventual situations for which the United States ought to be prepared.

The sums which had been previously accumulated in the treasury, together with the receipts during the year ending on the 30th of September last (and amounting to more than nine millions of dollars), have enabled us to fulfill all our engagements, and to defray the current expenses of government without

recurring to any loan. But the insecurity of our commerce, and the consequent diminution of the public revenue, will probably produce a deficiency in the receipts of the ensuing year, for which, and for other details, I refer to the statement which will be transmitted from the treasury.

* In the state which has been presented of our affairs with the great parties to a disastrous and protracted war, carried on in a mode equally injurious and unjust to the United States as a neutral nation, the wisdom of the national legislature will be again summoned to the important decision of the alternatives before them. That these will be met in a spirit worthy the councils of a nation, conscious both of its rectitude and of its rights, and careful as well of its honour as of its peace, I have an entire confidence. And that the result will be stamped by an unanimity becoming the occasion, and be supported by every portion of our citizens, with patriotism enlightened and invigorated by experience, ought as little to be doubted.

In the midst of the wrongs and vexations experienced from external causes, there is much room for congratulation on the prosperity and happiness flowing from our situation at home. The blessing of health has never been more universal. The fruits of the seasons, though in particular articles and districts short of their usual redundancy, are more than sufficient for our wants and our comforts. The face of our country every where presents the evidences of laudable enterprize, of extensive capital, and of durable improvement. In a cultivation of the materials, and the extension of useful manufactures, more especially in the general application to household

hold fabrics, we behold a rapid diminution of our dependence on foreign supplies. Nor is it unworthy of reflection, that the revolution in our pursuits and habits is in no slight degree a consequence of those impolitic and arbitrary edicts, by which the contending nations, in endeavouring each of them to obstruct our trade with the other, have so far abridged our means of procuring the productions and manufactures, of which our own are now taking place.

JAMES MADISON.

FRANCE.

Speech of the Emperor Napoleon. at the opening of the meeting of the Legislative Body. December 3, 1809.

“Gentlemen, deputies of departments to the legislative body.—Since your last session I have reduced Arragon and Castille to submission, and driven from Madrid the fallacious government formed by England. I was marching upon Cadiz and Lisbon, when I was under the necessity of treading back my steps, and of planting my eagles on the ramparts of Vienna. Three months have seen the rise and termination of this fourth Punic war. Accustomed to the devotedness and courage of my armies, I must nevertheless, under these circumstances, acknowledge the particular proofs of affection which my soldiers of Germany have given me. The genius of France conducted the English army—it has terminated its projects in the pestilential marshes of Walcheren. In that important period I remained four hundred leagues distant, certain of the new glory which my people would acquire, and of the grand character

they would display. My hopes have not been deceived—I owe particular thanks to the citizens of the departments of the Pas de Calais, and the North. Frenchmen! Every one that shall oppose you, shall be conquered and reduced to submission. Your grandeur shall be increased by the hatred of your enemies. You have before you long years of glory and prosperity. You have the force and energy of the Hercules of the ancients. I have united Tuscany to the empire. The Tuscans were worthy of it by the mildness of their character, by the attachment their ancestors have always shewn us, and by the services they have rendered to European civilization. History pointed out to me the conduct I ought to pursue towards Rome: the Popes, become sovereigns of part of Italy, have constantly shewn themselves enemies of every preponderating power in the peninsula—they have employed their spiritual power to injure it—it was then demonstrated to me, that the spiritual influence exercised in my states by a foreign Sovereign, was contrary to the independence of France, to the dignity and safety of my throne. However, as I acknowledge the necessity of the spiritual influence of the descendants of the first of the pastors, I could not conciliate these grand interests, but by annulling the donative of the French Emperors, my predecessors, and by uniting the Roman States to France.—By the treaty of Vienna, all the kings, and sovereigns my allies, who have given me so many proofs of the constancy of their friendship, have acquired and shall acquire, fresh increase of territory. The Illyrian provinces stretch the frontiers of my great empire to the Save. Contiguous to the empire of

of Constantinople, I shall find myself in a situation to watch over the first interests of my commerce in the Mediterranean, the Adriatic, and the Levant. I will protect the Porte, if the Porte withdraw herself from the fatal influence of England. I shall know how to punish her, if she suffer herself to be governed by cunning and perfidious counsels. I have wished to give the Swiss nation a new proof of my esteem, by annexing to my titles that of their mediator, and thus putting an end to all the uneasiness endeavoured to be spread among that brave people. Holland, placed between England and France, is equally bruised by them. Yet she is the *debouché* of the principal arteries of my empire. Changes will become necessary; the safety of my frontiers, and the well-understood interests of the two countries, imperiously require them. Sweden has lost, by her alliance with England, after a disastrous war, the finest and most important of her provinces. Happy would it have been for that nation, if the wise prince that governs her now had ascended the throne some years sooner? This example proves anew to kings, that the alliance of England is the surest presage of ruin. My ally and friend the emperor of Russia has united to his vast empire, Finland, Moldavia, Wallachia, and a district of Galicia. I am not jealous of any thing that can produce good to that empire. My sentiments for its illustrious Sovereign are in unison with my policy. When I shall shew myself beyond the Pyrenees, the frightened leopard will fly to the ocean, to avoid shame, defeat, and death. The triumph of my arms will be the triumph of the genius of good over that of evil; of moderation, order, and morality, over civil

war, anarchy, and the bad passions. My friendship and protection will, I hope, restore tranquillity and happiness to the people of the Spains. Gentlemen deputies of departments to the legislative body, I have directed my minister of the interior to lay before you the history of the legislation, of the administration, and of the finances of the year just expired; you will see that all the ideas I had conceived for the amelioration of my people, have been followed with the greatest activity; that in Paris, as in the most distant parts of my empire, the war has not produced any delay in the public works. The members of my council of state will submit to you different projects of law, and especially the law upon the finances; you will see in it their prosperous condition. I demand of my people no new sacrifice, though circumstances have obliged me to double my military means.

FLUSHING.

Sentence against Général Monnet,
December 9.

The council of inquiry appointed by his majesty the emperor and king, convened by his excellency Count de Huneburgh, minister at war, in obedience to his majesty's orders, dated Schoenbrunn, Sept. 7, 1809, and assembled at the general military *depot*, closed on the 25th of last month its deliberations, and pronounced the following sentence: that General Monnet, contrary to his duty, did not fulfill the orders of his imperial majesty, in case of his being pressed hard by the enemy, to cut the dykes rather than surrender. That he surrendered the fortress at a time when it had only sustained a bombardment of thirty-six hours, when the garrison was still

still composed of more than 4000 men, when no breach was made in the rampart, and the enemy was yet more than 800 metres distant from the fortress, and when our troops were yet in possession of the outworks, and when, consequently, the place was not really besieged. That the General is therefore guilty of gross misconduct, which cannot be attributed to any other motive than cowardice and treason. And the council declares, moreover, that the General is guilty of extortion and embezzlement, since it appears in evidence, that he did receive, or cause to be received, for his own private benefit and use, from the year 1803 to the year 1806, the sum of ten Dutch stivers, or twenty sous Tournois, for each half anker geneva which was exported.

(Signed) COUNT RAMPON.

COUNT d'ALZVELLE, Vice-Adm.
HERENOUD.

COUNTS SONGER & BASSON.

The above sentence was confirmed by the emperor and king on the 6th instant.

SPAIN.

Royal Decree, dated Seville, September 1.

His majesty would neither fulfill his own wishes, nor the hopes of his people, if, at the same time when he labours to free the country from the oppression of its tyrant, he did not make every exertion to correct the vices which exist in the interior administration, and to raise this magnanimous and generous nation to the high degree of splendour and power to which it is intitled by the fruitfulness of its soil, the benignity of its climate, the extension of its coasts, and the possession of its rich colonies. Among the obstacles which have constantly

opposed the progress of our agricultural industry and commerce, the first place is held by the contributions, called Alcabalas, Cientas, and Millones, imposts, which obstructing the interior circulation, and pressing unequally on the productions of the land, on manufactures, and, in general, on all objects of commerce, not only have banished from our unfortunate country that liberty, without which there can be neither arts, cultivation, or commerce; not only have rendered odious the fiscal administration, and even industry itself; but, which is more, inflicting on it incurable wounds, have ever been only a feeble resource for supplying the necessities of the state. Observation and experience have shewn their prejudicial effects; the people have cried out for a remedy; the decline of our manufactures, and the mercantile system unanimously embraced by all the nations of Europe. But though the government knew these defects, and reformed them partially, these reforms were a new vice, which only still more embroiled the system. At length the time is arrived when good principles shall triumph over ignorance, and the nation which has appeared great and majestic in the eyes of all Europe by its valour and its virtue, shall be so also by the liberality of its principles and the goodness of its interior administration. The supreme junta of government of the kingdom is well convinced, that the riches of individuals are the riches of the state, and that no nation can be rich without encouraging its agriculture, commerce, and industry; and that industry in general does not increase but remove the obstacles which may obstruct both the fiscal and civil laws. From these considerations the supreme junta cannot

cannot omit occupying itself with this work, beginning with the most urgent reform, which is that of the contributions, and providing, in the place of those abolished, others upon such things as can more properly be required to contribute, distributing them equally among the contributors, exacting them in the time and manner least offensive, and collecting them with the least expense possible. Thus the contributions, which are always an evil, shall fall only on those who can contribute, shall be applied to their true objects, and not to the maintenance of an innumerable multitude of tax-gatherers, who are unproductive consumers, and so many hands lost to industry. In consequence, therefore, of these principles, the king our Lord Don Ferdinand VII. and in his royal name the supreme junta of the government of the kingdom decrees as follows:—Art. 1. The contributions known by the name of Alcabalas, Censo, and Millones,* shall be abolished, as

soon as those which are appointed to supply their place shall be appropriated and established.—Art. 2. The department of finance is charged to propose to his majesty the contributions which shall supply the place of those abolished.—Art. 3. The present decree shall be printed, published, and circulated, in the usual form, from the royal palace of Seville, August 7, 1809.

MARQUIS OF ASTORGA, President.
DON MARTIN DE GARAY.

AMERICA.

British Deserters. Case of the Men arrested as Deserters from the Frigate L'Africaine, by John Hunter, Esq. Sheriff of Baltimore, at the request of William Wood, Esq. British Consul for the Port of Baltimore.

An habeas corpus was applied for to Judge Scott, late on Thursday evening, on behalf of seven men, arrested and held in custody by the sheriff at the request, and on

* [The Alcabala is a tribute or royal duty which is paid upon every article sold, in the form of a per-centage, according to the value of the commodity. This per-centage is varied; but all the laws and ordinances respecting it, to remove ambiguity and to prevent exactions, are collected in a book called the Alcabalatorio. There is a Spanish proverb which sufficiently shews the unpopularity of this form of taxation—*Quien descubre la Alcabalaese to jaga*. "Whoever informs of the Alcabala should pay it." In the Recopilacion de los Lues the superior clergy and judges are exempted from it. The Censo, which has been improperly called Ciensos and Ciensas in the newspapers, is a rate collected on the rents of houses and estates. The Millones is an aid that the kingdom granted to the sovereign on the consumption of six articles of domestic use, wine, vinegar, oil, butcher's meat, soap, and tallow candles. Among the accommodations at court, in the council of finances, there is an apartment called the Sala de Millones. In this room or hall the affairs relating to this due to the king, are transacted, as well as some others regarding the tax on tobacco, cocoa, and a few other commodities. The persons appointed to superintend this business consist of some members of the council of finances, and several deputies nominated by such of the cities of Spain as have authority to vote for representatives (Procuradores) in the Cortes.]

the statement of the British consul that they were deserters, by their counsel. The habeas corpus was issued as prayed for, returnable the next morning at nine o'clock. Accordingly, this morning, the men were brought up amidst an immense concourse of citizens, who filled the court-house and the neighbouring street, and the sheriff made return that he had arrested and detained the men in custody, in virtue of the following, from the British consul :

*“ British Consul’s Office,
Baltimore, Sept. 6, 1809.*

Sir,
Having received information that thirteen seamen have deserted from L’Africaine frigate, and are now in this city, I have to request that you will be pleased to secure them till they can be sent on board.—I am, &c. WM. WOOD.”
John Hunter, Esq.”

By virtue of this authority, I have arrested and put in prison the following persons, to wit: John Cowland, William Whokes, Denis Murphy, Richard Hewes, John Sharp, John Burwell, and Jacob Lamb. The judge said that he had conceived it his duty to give notice to Mr. Wood (the British consul) of the application, so that he might appear and shew cause, if any he had, why the men should be retained,

In the course of a few minutes Mr. Wood came into court, and the counsel for the prisoners, Messrs. Glenn and J. L. Donaldson, moved the court that the men be discharged, sufficient cause for their detention not appearing on their return. Mr. Wood’s counsel, Mr. Walter Dorsey, requested to be allowed time to inquire into the law; and said, that they would be ready to prove that these men were de-

serters from his Britannic majesty’s ship. The counsel for the prisoners objected to the delay. The chief justice stated, that the opinion of the secretary of state had satisfied him, that deserters from British vessels ought not to be arrested or detained under the authority of the government of the United States, for the purpose of delivering them up to the officers of the British government; he therefore ordered the prisoners to be immediately discharged. The audience expressed their approbation of his decision by three loud and tumultuous huzzas and execrations of the tories, and carried off the deserters in triumph!

Report made to his Majesty the Emperor and King, protector of the Confederation of the Rhine, by His Excellency Count de Huneburgh, Minister of War, Sept. 15, 1809.

SIRE,

If the numerous victories of your majesty, and the extraordinary successes of your armies, be at the same time the work of your genius, the result of the most scientific military combinations, of your inherent intrepidity, and of the courage of so many brave men, these victories and successes are no less owing to your admirable foresight. It is this which has inspired your majesty with the idea of assembling at first, in the interior of the empire, whatever might be the complexion of affairs, the youth of France who are successively called to serve their country, and of making them constantly pay their contribution to the safety of the state, at the same time that they accustom themselves to arms. The temporary dereliction of this system would be productive of some danger to the empire, and it would be placing rather too great a reliance upon the future,

future, however flattering appearances might be at present, to suffer the *depots* in the interior of France to want the regular supply of recruits, whenever a part of the young soldiers who fill them should be called into actual service. A short glance at the state of your majesty's armies will be sufficient to shew, that the levy, which I feel it my duty to propose, is sufficient at present. Master of Vienna, and of more than half the Austrian monarchy, your majesty is at the head of the most formidable army that France ever had beyond the Rhine; and to judge of what it is capable of effecting, it is only necessary to mention, that it was hardly formed when it conquered Austria, in the fields of Thaur, of Abersberg, and of Eckmühl. Whether the negotiations of Althenburgh terminate in peace, or whether the war continue, your majesty has in your *depots* troops enough, fit to take the field, to recruit your army in Germany. In the month of January your majesty pursued the English army in Galicia. While you were engaged in it, your majesty was informed that the court of Vienna intended to break its engagements. Though such an event seemed to call the principal part of your forces into Germany, your majesty nevertheless thought proper to leave your veteran army in Spain; not that the whole of that army was actually necessary to complete the subjugation of the Spanish rebels, but to deprive England of the possibility of prolonging that rebellion, of which she is the cause. That power seeing in the new system established in Spain, the presage of her own ruin, did not, however, despair of overturning it; and her efforts upon this occasion have greatly surpassed all that we have seen her make upon similar

occasions. General Moore had not been able to bring off from Galicia the half of his troops. The immense losses which his army sustained, did not dissuade the English government from sending a fresh army, consisting of 40,000 men, to Lisbon. It penetrated to the centre of Spain, and rallied round it the various corps of insurgents. The banks of the Alberche and the Tagus witnessed their flight and their confusion. Compelled to retreat to the further side of that river, and pursued at the point of the bayonet, they totally evacuated Spain, and the Portuguese saw them return in disorder to their territory. At the same period, an army of equal force suddenly made its appearance at the entrance of the Scheldt, with the intention of burning the dock-yard at Antwerp; there our enemies were covered with confusion. At their approach, Flushing was provided with a numerous garrison. 12,000 picked troops marched from St. Omer, under the orders of the Senator General Rampon; and eight demi-brigades of reserve, which were at Boulogne, Louvaine, and Paris, proceeded post to the points that were menaced. These troops were of themselves sufficient for the defence of Antwerp. That place, which is covered by a stronger rampart, and the advanced works which your majesty caused to be constructed four years ago, is still further protected by extensive inundations; and on the left bank of the Scheldt, the fort of La Tete de Flandre, which is itself surrounded by an inundation of 2,000 toises, secures the communication of Antwerp with our fortresses in the north. The English expedition was formed upon the supposition, that Antwerp was only an open city, whereas that fortress could not be taken but after

After a long siege. Independent of troops of the line, your majesty saw, at the first signal, 150,000 national guards ready to march, and at their head the majors of your infantry, officers of the fifth battalions, and veteran officers; you found in their ranks a number of old soldiers. Numerous detachments of cavalry of the line were preceded by the *gens-d'armes* of France. The English were not aware that this ranch of force alone could, at a moment's notice, assemble at any given point 60 squadrons, composed of men that had seen sixteen years' service, all equally experienced, equally well disciplined and armed as those brave cuirassiers, who, under your majesty's orders, have brought to so high a pitch the glory of the French cavalry. As if by enchantment, the dispositions prescribed by your majesty caused to appear, at the same instant, on the banks of the Scheldt, and at the rendezvous of the reserve at Lisle and Maestricht, four different armies, under the command of Marshal the Prince of Ponte Corvo, and Marshals the Dukes of Cornegliano, Salmy, and Istria. The sudden development of such a force, and the national impulse which continued to multiply its numbers, struck the enemy with consternation. Their enterprize, calculated upon false data, completely failed. Europe has witnessed the realization of that which your majesty's penetration anticipated, when you pronounced that this expedition originated in ignorance and inexperience; and when, sparing of French blood, and directing that a plan merely defensive should be followed, you wrote to me, 'we are happy to see the English crowding into the marshes of Zealand; let them be ever kept in check, and their army

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will be speedily destroyed by the bad air, and the epidemic fevers of that country.' Whilst our troops were distributed in comfortable cantonments in the environs of Antwerp, or stationed in that fortress, the English army, encamped in the midst of marshes, and destitute of water fit for drinking, lost upwards of one-third of its soldiers. But the facility which the English have of going by sea from one quarter to another, may lead us to expect that all that will have escaped the disasters of this expedition, will be sent to reinforce their army in Portugal. Sire, the various fields of battle in which your armies have distinguished themselves, are too remote from each other to admit of your marching, without inconvenience to the soldier, one of your armies, from one scene of action to the other; and your majesty, so highly satisfied with the zeal of the troops you command beyond the Danube, is anxious to spare them from the fatigues of the war in Spain. Besides, the French armies beyond the Pyrenees, now consist of 300 battalions and 150 squadrons. It is therefore sufficient, without sending any additional corps thither, to keep up at their full establishment those already there. Thirty thousand men, collected at Bayonne, afford the means of accomplishing this object, and of repulsing any force which the English may cause to advance. In this state of things, I conceived that it corresponded with your majesty's views to limit the levy, necessary at this moment, to the contingent indispensably requisite for replacing, in the battalions of the interior, the drafts which are daily made from them. The returns which will be laid before your majesty will inform you, that, of the conscription for the years 1806-7-8-9 and 10, there

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still

still remain more than 80,000, who, though ballotted, have not yet been called into actual service. This immense reinforcement might march against your enemies, should that measure be rendered necessary by any imminent danger to the state. I propose to your majesty to call out only 36,000, and to declare all those classes entirely free from any future call. By this means, your armies, Sire, will be maintained at their present respectable establishment, and a considerable number of your subjects will be definitively released from the conscription. Your majesty will have also at your disposal, the 25,000 men afforded by the class of 1811, upon whom I shall not propose to your majesty to make any call, unless events should disappoint your hopes and pacific intentions. Your majesty's armies are equally formidable from their numbers as from their courage. But who could advise France not to proportion her efforts to those of her enemies? In giving such advice, the result of the most imprudent security, it would be necessary to forget that Austria, very lately, had on foot 700,000 men; and that to create this gigantic force, that power did not hesitate to expose her population to almost total destruction, and to attack the very basis of her prosperity. We must equally forget, that England has taken part in the continental war, by landing, at the same moment, three different armies, on the coasts of Naples, Holland, and Portugal. The agitation of those who are jealous of France has been redoubled, because they are conscious that the present crisis has for ever fixed her greatness. Their efforts will be impotent, because France has been enabled to reach the highest pinnacle of success and of glory, without making any of those

ruinous sacrifices which destroy her enemies. In fact, notwithstanding the successive calls, up to the present moment, made upon the different classes of conscripts, scarcely have one-fourth of those who composed them taken the field. In considering the situation of your majesty's armies and the results of the English expeditions, can we, without a degree of satisfaction, behold England, in imitation of Austria, making efforts disproportionate to her means, and the wants of her navy? What can she expect from this contest upon land, and man to man, with France, that shall not redound to her own injury and disgrace? Sire, the French people will have to thank your majesty for the inexpressible advantage and glory of a peace, conquered without maritime expeditions, from an enemy who, by his situation, thought himself free from all attack. Every serious attempt upon the Continent on the part of the English, is a step towards a general peace. The English ministers, who preceded the members of the present government, a more able set of men than the latter, were well convinced of this truth, and took good care not to commit themselves in an unequal contest. It did not escape their observation, that, to carry on a long war, it was necessary that it should press lightly upon the people who had to support it. Within the last twelve months, the war has cost England more blood than she had previously shed from the period when she broke the peace of Amiens: committed in the battles of Spain and Portugal, whence her duty and her interest forbid her to recede, she will see those countries become the tomb of her bravest warriors. Sorrow for their loss will at length produce in the minds of the

the English people a well-founded abhorrence of those cruel men, whose ambition and frantic hatred dared to pronounce the expression of *eternal war*. It will excite in that people the wish for a general peace, which every man of good sense may predict to be near at hand, if the English persist in a continental contest. I am with respect, &c.

The Minister at war,
COUNT DE HUNNEBURGH.

MR. CANNING'S STATEMENT.

To the Earl Camden, &c. &c.
Gloucester Lodge,
My Lord, *Nov. 14, 1809.*

I had written to your lordship immediately after the publication of your lordship's statement; but I delayed sending my letter, in the hope of being able previously to submit it to the perusal of the Duke of Portland.

In this hope I have been disappointed by that fatal event, which has deprived this country of one of its most upright and disinterested patriots; the king, of one of his most faithful, devoted, and affectionate subjects; and the world, of one of the most blameless and most sensible-minded of men.

Thus situated, I have thought it right to revise what I had written, and scrupulously to expunge every allusion to the authority of the Duke of Portland, which would now stand upon my sole testimony; retaining such only as are supported, either by written documents, which I shall be happy to communicate to your lordship; or by facts which are well known to your lordship, and to your colleagues, and in which, for the most part, your lordship is personally concerned.

Neither, however, can I content myself with this precaution, but must protest, at the same time, in the most earnest manner, against any possible misconstruction, by which any thing in the following letter can be strained to a meaning unfavourable to the motives which actuated the Duke of Portland's conduct.

It is impossible, indeed, not to regret the policy, however well intentioned, which dictated the reserve practised towards Lord Castlereagh, in the beginning of this transaction; or that practised towards myself in its conclusion. It is to be regretted, that the Duke of Portland should have imposed, and that your lordship should have accepted, the condition, in the first communications between you. It is also to be regretted, that I should not have learnt in July, that your lordship was not then party to the assurances then given to me on behalf of Lord Castlereagh's friends in general; and that another member of the cabinet, comprehended in that description, had, as I have since heard, refused to concur in them.

Had I been made acquainted with these circumstances, I should then have resigned; and my resignation would, at that time, have taken place without inconvenience or embarrassment, and without stirring those questions (no way connected with the causes of my retirement), or subjecting me to those misinterpretations of my conduct and motives, which have been produced by the coincidence of my resignation with that of the Duke of Portland. But, however this reserve may be to be regretted, it is impossible to attribute the adoption of it, on the part of the Duke of Portland, to any other motives than to that gentleness of nature which

eminently distinguished him; and which led him to endeavour, above all things, to prevent political differences from growing into personal dissensions; and to aim at executing whatever arrangement might be expedient for improving or strengthening the administration, with the concurrence, if possible, of all its existing members. And no man who knows the affectionate respect and attachment which the manly and generous qualities of the Duke of Portland's mind was calculated to command, and which I invariably bore to him, will suspect me of being willing to establish my own vindication, at the expence of the slightest disrespect to his memory, or prejudice to his fame.

I have the honour to be, my lord,
Your lordship's most obedient,
humble servant,

GEORGE CANNING.

To the Earl Camden.

My Lord,

The statement, which has been published in the newspapers, in your lordship's name, has decided a question on which I had before been hesitating, as to the necessity of an authentic detail of the transactions, so far as I am concerned in them, or am acquainted with them, to which that statement refers. For that purpose, I think a direct address to your lordship more decorous, both towards your lordship and for myself, than an anonymous paragraph in a newspaper.

It is with the most painful reluctance that I recur to a subject, which, so far as it concerns Lord Castlereagh and myself, had been settled in a manner which is usually, I believe, considered as final. Discussions of the cause of dispute more commonly precede, than follow, the extreme appeal; to

which Lord Castlereagh resorted; and when, after mature consideration, his lordship determined to resort to that appeal in the first instance, I should have thought that such a choice deliberatively made would have been felt by his friends to be equally conclusive upon them as upon himself. But your lordship needs not to be informed, how assiduously my character has been assailed by writers in the newspapers espousing Lord Castlereagh's quarrel, and supposed (I trust, most injuriously) to be his lordship's particular friends.

The perversions and misrepresentations of anonymous writers, however, would not have extorted from me any reply. But to them succeeded the publication of Lord Castlereagh's letter to me, Sept. 19th. I entirely disbelieve that Lord Castlereagh, and I distinctly deny that myself, had any knowledge of this publication. But, by what means it matters not, the latter is now before the world; and though the course originally chosen by Lord Castlereagh precluded me from offering any explanation to him, the course which has since been adopted on his behalf (though undoubtedly without his privity) might perhaps have been considered as rendering such an explanation due to myself. It is, however, only since your lordship's publication, that I have felt it to be indispensably necessary.

The statement on my behalf which has also found its way, without my consent, and against my wish, into the public papers, was written under a sense of delicacy and restraint as to the particulars of the transaction itself, which must always continue to prevail in a great degree; but from which until Wednesday, the 11th of October

the day on which I gave up the seals, I had not an opportunity of soliciting any dispensation.

Of the indulgence which I then most humbly solicited, I trust I shall be able to avail myself sufficiently for my own vindication, without losing sight of those considerations of duty and propriety, by which the use of such an indulgence must necessarily be regulated and confined. It is stated in Lord Castlereagh's letter, "That I had demanded and procured from the Duke of Portland, before the rising of parliament, a promise for Lord Castlereagh's removal from the war department; that, by this promise, Lord Castlereagh's situation, as a minister of the crown, was made dependant on my pleasure; and that this promise I afterwards thought myself entitled to enforce. That after, and notwithstanding this virtual supersession of Lord Castlereagh in his office, I allowed him to originate and conduct the expedition to the Scheldt. And that during his whole period, I knew that the agitation and the decision of the question for his removal were concealed from him, and was party to his concealment."

Lord Castlereagh, indeed, admits, that he "has no right, as a public man, to resent my demanding, upon public grounds, his removal from his office, or even from the administration, as a condition of my continuing a member of the government. But he contends, that a proposition "justifiable in itself," might not to have been "executed in an unjustifiable manner," and he makes me responsible for the manner in which the "head of the administration," and some members of the government, "*supposed* to be his (Lord Castlereagh's) friends," executed the proposition which he attributed to me.

He is ready to acknowledge, indeed, "that I pressed for a disclosure, at the same time that I pressed for a decision; and that the disclosure was resisted by the Duke of Portland and his (Lord Castlereagh's,) *supposed* friends." But, in this circumstance, Lord Castlereagh professes not to see any justification of what he conceives to have been my conduct towards him: because, by acquiescing in the advice or intreaties of his "*supposed* friends," I admitted "an authority" on their part, "which I must have known them not to possess," because "by pressing for disclosure," I shewed my own sense of the "unfairness" of concealment; and because, with that sense, I "ought" (as he conceives me not to have done) "to have availed myself of the same alternative, namely, my own resignation, to enforce disclosure, which I did to enforce decision."

Without offering a single word in the way of argument, I shall, by a distinct detail of facts, in the order of their date, substantiate my contradiction of these charges. I shall only premise,

1st. That I had (as is admitted by Lord Castlereagh) an unquestionable right to require, on public grounds, a change in the war department, considering, at the same time, the alternative of my own resignation.

2dly. What no man at all acquainted with the course of public business will dispute, that the regular, effectual, and straight forward course for bringing that alternative to issue, was to state it directly to the "head of the administration," the king's chief minister, to be laid by that minister before the king.

I proceed to the detail of facts.

April 2d.—I addressed a letter to the Duke of Portland, containing a repre-

representation on the state of his administration, and expressing my wish and intention, unless some change were effected in it, to resign.

April 4th to 8th.—Upon the Duke of Portland's requiring a more detailed explanation, as to the motives of proffered resignation, I stated, among other things, that a change either in my own department, or that of Lord Castlereagh's, appeared to me to be expedient for the public service. I stated my perfect willingness that the alternative should be decided for my retirement; and only requested that the decision might, if possible, take place before the recommencement of business in parliament, after the Easter holidays. The Duke of Portland requested me to suspend the execution of my intention to resign; wishing to have an opportunity of consulting with some of our colleagues, before he determined what advice to lay before the king.

April 16.—The Easter holidays thus passed away. On the 16th of April, shortly after his grace's return to town from Bulstrode, the Duke of Portland opened the subject to one of the members of the cabinet, whose name, (not having been hitherto brought forward) I do not think it necessary to mention. Your lordship is perfectly acquainted with it. By the Duke of Portland's desire, I had a communication with that member of the cabinet, within a very few days after his interview with the Duke of Portland. He strongly represented the difficulty of making any new arrangement, during the sitting of parliament; and urged me to defer the pressing my own resignation till the end of the session. To this recommendation I did not promise to accede;

but we agreed, (whether upon his suggestion or upon mine, I am not confident) that, at all events, no step whatever could properly be taken, until after the decision of the question of the writership; which was about this time brought forward in the House of Commons.

April 25th.—That question was decided on Tuesday the 25th of April.

April 28th.—On Friday the 28th, the Duke of Portland communicated fully with your lordship, and informed me, as the result of that communication, that your lordship thought a change in Lord Castlereagh's situation in the government desirable, provided it could be effected honourably for Lord Castlereagh, and that it "could be reconciled to Lord Castlereagh's feelings." From this period, I understood that your lordship was constantly consulted by the Duke of Portland in every step of the transaction. Other members of the cabinet were also consulted by the Duke of Portland; but how many of them, or at what precise periods, I neither knew at the time, nor can now undertake to say. Shortly after your lordship's first interview with the Duke of Portland, (I am sure before the 5th of May), that member of the cabinet with whom his grace had first communicated, reported to me a suggestion of your lordship's of a change of office for Lord Castlereagh, evidently calculated on the principles which your lordship had stated as indispensable to such a change. Whether this communication to me was in the nature of a direct message from your lordship, I do not exactly know. But I understood distinctly that you knew of its being made to me; and that whatever observation I might make upon it,

was

was to be reported to your lordship. What I observed upon it was, in substance, that it was not for me to say what change would be proper; that I had done all that I had thought myself either called upon or at liberty to do, in stating to the Duke of Portland my opinions, and my intention to resign; that the Duke of Portland alone could either propose any change, or obtain the necessary authority for carrying it into effect; and that I therefore recommended that your lordship should state your suggestion to the Duke of Portland.

May 5th.—On the 5th of May, the Duke of Portland informed me, that he had determined to lay the whole subject, on the following Wednesday, before his majesty.

May 10th.—On Wednesday the 10th of May, he informed me that he had done so; and that his majesty had been graciously pleased to say that he would take the subject into his serious consideration.

May 31st.—On Wednesday the 31st of May, apprehending it to be possible that my intention might not have been fully explained to his majesty, and thinking it my duty to leave no doubt upon it, I humbly repeated to his majesty the representations which I had before made to the Duke of Portland, and humbly tendered my resignation. I received thereupon his majesty's gracious commands to retain my situation until his majesty should have considered the whole subject.

June 8th.—Some time in the course of the next week, I think on the 8th of June, the Duke of Portland stated to me, that he had received his majesty's commands, to propose, and to carry into effect, at the end of the session of parliament, an arrangement for a partial change in the war department. The

particulars of this arrangement I do not think it proper to detail; feeling it my duty to limit myself strictly to what is absolutely necessary for the explanation of my own conduct. It is sufficient to state, that the object of this arrangement was not the removal of Lord Castlereagh, but a new distribution of the business of the war department, whereby that part of it which was connected with political correspondence would have been transferred to the foreign office; and the business of another office then vacant, would have been transferred to Lord Castlereagh. It is only necessary to add, that the effect of this new distribution would not have been to take out of Lord Castlereagh's hands the superintendence of the expedition to the Scheldt.

June 13th.—On the 13th of June, I wrote to the Duke of Portland, signifying to him, that although such an arrangement had never entered into my contemplation, and although I did not think it calculated to remedy all the difficulties which had induced me to bring the state of the administration under his grace's consideration, I was ready, so far as I was concerned, to undertake and discharge, to the best of my ability, any duty which his majesty might be graciously pleased to devolve upon me; but I expressed, at the same time, great doubts, whether this arrangement could be expected to be acceptable to Lord Castlereagh, or (in all its parts) satisfactory to the public feeling.

June 18th.—On Sunday, the 18th of June, (parliament being expected to rise on the 20th or 21st), I wrote to the Duke of Portland, to inquire whether this arrangement, or any other, was to take place; stating to him, that “if things remained

remained as they then were, I was determined not to remain in office."

June 18th.—In answer, the Duke of Portland mentioned to me a new plan of arrangement, altogether different from that which he had been authorized to carry into effect; and stated, that he had sent for your lordship and other members of the cabinet, with whom your lordship and the Duke of Portland had been in constant communication, to co-operate with him, in forwarding this new plan, and to urge Lord Castlereagh to consent to it. The particulars of this new plan I do not think it necessary to state, as I learnt from the Duke of Portland, either the next day or the day following it, that to this plan Lord Castlereagh certainly could not be brought to agree. Whether this was known to his grace only from your lordship, or through your lordship from Lord Castlereagh himself, I was not apprized.

June 21st.—On Wednesday, the day of the rising of parliament, I was assured by the Duke of Portland, that the specific arrangement which he had in the first instance proposed, viz. the new distribution of the business of the war department should be carried into effect; and that his majesty had directed him to desire your lordship to communicate his decision to Lord Castlereagh.

June 27th.—On Tuesday, June the 27th, finding no communication had yet been made to Lord Castlereagh, I wrote to the Duke of Portland in terms of the strongest remonstrance, both against the concealment and the delay; and intimated my determination to recur to my original intention, and to press the acceptance of my resignation.

June 28th.—Accordingly on the following day, Wednesday the 28th

of June, I had an audience of the king, in which I humbly and earnestly repeated to his majesty the tender of my resignation. That same evening, the Duke of Portland informed me that he had that day signified to your lordship the king's desire, that your lordship should communicate the intended arrangement to Lord Castlereagh; and that the communication was to be made by your lordship as soon as the expedition had sailed, which, it was expected, would be in less than a fortnight from that time.

July 5th.—But before this fortnight elapsed, viz. on Wednesday the 5th of July, the Duke of Portland informed me, that, in consideration of the difficulties attending the proposed arrangement, he, and those with whom he had consulted, were of opinion, that another should be substituted for it, which he trusted would also be more agreeable to me. He told me, that hopes were entertained that your lordship would determine to offer your resignation, for the purpose of facilitating a general arrangement, in which a complete change in the war department might be effected consistently with Lord Castlereagh's feelings. He said, however, that your lordship had not yet finally made up your mind upon the subject; but that you would probably come to a decision before the following Wednesday. The Duke of Portland stated his intention, in the event of your lordship's resignation, to submit to his majesty the nomination of Lord Wellesley to the war department. It was well known by the Duke of Portland, that I had been always anxious for Lord Wellesley's accession to the cabinet; but this was the first mention to me, in the course of this transaction, of his introduction into the war department.

ent. But for a severe indisposition, Lord Wellesley would, before this time, have been on his mission to Spain.

July 13th.—On Thursday, the 13th of July, the Duke of Portland informed me, that your lordship had, the day before, actually tendered your resignation; but that your lordship had annexed to it the conditions, that no change should take place till after the termination of the expedition to the Scheldt; and that it should be left to your lordship to choose the time of making any communication to Lord Castlereagh.

July 13th to 30th.—I made the strongest remonstrances against this new delay, and this indefinite renewal of the concealment from Lord Castlereagh. I said, that after the repeated postponements which had already taken place, and after the reserve which had already been practised towards Lord Castlereagh, I could not rely upon the execution of any arrangement which would not be now completely settled in all its parts. And, if this were not to be done, I most earnestly intreated that his majesty might be advised now to accept my resignation:

The Duke of Portland most anxiously deprecated my resignation, leading, in his apprehension, to the dissolution of the administration. He declared himself to be authorized to assure me in the most solemn manner, that the arrangement now in contemplation should positively take place at the termination of the expedition; that the seals of the war department should be offered to Lord Wellesley—an office (to be vacated by means of your lordship's retirement) being at the same time to be offered to Lord Castlereagh; and that, in the interval, and without loss of time, Lord Castlereagh's

friends should take opportunities of preparing him for the change, and reconciling him to it, by representing to him the great advantage to be derived from it, in the acquisition of additional strength to the government.

July 13th to 20th.—Not only the Duke of Portland, but other members of the Cabinet, Lord Castlereagh's friends, some directly, and some through common friends, urged me, in the most earnest manner, to acquiesce in the postponement now proposed. It was represented to me, that if, instead of pressing for the execution of the arrangement now, time were allowed to Lord Castlereagh's friends to prepare him for the change, and to reconcile him to it, the arrangement might ultimately take place in an amicable manner; that every public object might thus be answered without any unnecessary harshness to the feelings of individuals; and that so far from finding fresh impediments raised to the execution of the arrangement, when the time arrived, I should find all those to whose representations I yielded, considering themselves pledged equally with the Duke of Portland to see it carried into effect. It is due to your lordship to say, that your lordship's name was not, so far as I recollect, specifically mentioned to me on this occasion; but it is equally due to myself to declare that I never for a moment imagined, nor could have believed, that the general description of "Lord Castlereagh's friends," as stated to me, without exception or qualification, by the Duke of Portland, did not comprehend your lordship, whose proffered resignation was the basis of the whole arrangement, and without whose express consent, therefore,

fore, no other person could announce the arrangement of Lord Castlereagh.

July 20th.—By these representations and assurances, at length, most reluctantly, and I confess against my better judgment, I was induced to acquiesce in the proposed postponement of the change: and consented to remain in office until the termination of the expedition.

Sept. 2.—On Saturday, September the 2d, the result of the expedition to the Scheldt being known, I wrote to the Duke of Portland, at Bulstrode, reminding his Grace, that the period fixed for offering the seals of the war department to Lord Wellesley, was arrived.

Sept. 6th.—On the following Wednesday, the 6th of September, the Duke of Portland informed me, that no steps whatever had been taken by any of Lord Castlereagh's friends to reconcile him to the change, or to prepare him for it; that the execution of the arrangement would be attended with other resignations, or at least with one other resignation (of which I had never before received the slightest intimation), and that he had himself determined to retire. Upon receiving this intelligence, I immediately disclaimed any wish that the arrangement, however positively I understood it to have been settled, should be carried into effect, under circumstances to me so unexpected; and instantly reverted to that "alternative," which upon each successive stage of difficulties and delays, I had uniformly pressed, that of the tender of my own resignation; which I desired the Duke of Portland to lay that day before the king.

Sept. 7th.—On the following day, Thursday, the 7th of September, I

declined attending the cabinet, stating in a letter to the Duke of Portland (which I sent to his grace to communicate to the cabinet, if he should think proper), that I considered my resignation as in his majesty's hands, and myself holding my place only till my successor should be named.

Sept. 8th.—On Friday, the 8th, I heard from the Duke of Portland that Lord Castlereagh had sent in his resignation. I have been informed since, (but whether correctly or not I cannot affirm), that he did so, in consequence of a communication made to him, by your lordship, after the cabinet of the preceding day.

Sept. 14th.—On Thursday, the 14th of September, your lordship called upon me at the foreign office by your own appointment, for the purpose of explaining the causes which had prevented your making any communication to Lord Castlereagh in the earlier stages of the transaction.

Sept. 19th.—On Tuesday, September the 19th, your lordship, in answer to a letter of mine of the preceding day, explained to me the causes of your silence to Lord Castlereagh, during the latter period of the transaction.

Sept. 20th.—On Wednesday morning, September 20, I received from Lord Castlereagh, the letter which produced our meeting. From this series of facts it appears,

That in April, I made a representation to the king's first minister, on the general state of the administration; and that, in the course of the discussions arising out of that representation, I proposed on public grounds, not as Lord Castlereagh appears to have been informed, his removal from the administration,

ministration, but the alternative of change, either in the war or foreign department.

That, on the 10th of May, the Duke of Portland submitted to his majesty the subject of my representation; and informed me, that his majesty would be pleased to take it into his consideration; that, from the 10th of May until the 8th of June, I was wholly unapprized of the result of that consideration; but that, for fear of misapprehension, I had, in person, during that interval, viz. on the 31st of May, humbly repeated my representation, and tendered my resignation to his majesty; that, on or about the 8th of June, for the first time, an arrangement was stated to me, which had for its object a new distribution of the business of the war department; and that on the 13th, I signified my acquiescence in that arrangement, so far as I was concerned.

That, on the 18th, another arrangement was stated to me, as intended to be substituted for that in which I had acquiesced: but that, on the 21st, it was announced to me, that the first arrangement was finally decided upon; was to be immediately carried into effect; and was to be communicated to Lord Castlereagh by your lordship; that on the 27th of June, no step appearing to have been taken, either to execute the intended arrangement, or to apprise Lord Castlereagh of it, I remonstrated against the delay, and against the concealment from Lord Castlereagh: and that on the same day your lordship received an injunction to communicate the intended arrangement to Lord Castlereagh.

That, on the 5th of July, a new plan was stated to me to be in contemplation; a plan originating with

your lordship, and depending for its execution upon a step to be taken by yourself: that this plan was, on the 13th, announced to me as settled, and as intended to be substituted for that which had been first proposed. That I at that time renewed my remonstrances in the strongest manner, both against the delay and against the concealment; but that it was stated to me to be an indispensable condition of this plan on your lordship's part, that it was not to be acted upon till the termination of the expedition to the Scheldt; and that the time of making the communication to Lord Castlereagh should be left to your lordship's discretion. That at length, in compliance with the representations and entreaties of the Duke of Portland, and of others, Lord Castlereagh's friends, and upon the most solemn assurances that Lord Castlereagh should in the mean time be prepared by his friends for the change, and that the change should positively take place at the period fixed by your lordship, I consented to remain in office.

That on Wednesday, the 6th of September, finding that nothing had been done towards preparing Lord Castlereagh for the arrangement; and that the execution of it would be attended with difficulties of which I had not before been apprized, I desired the Duke of Portland to lay my resignation before the king. Your lordship will therefore perceive, that up to the 8th of June, so far from being in possession of any "promise for Lord Castlereagh's removal," and from his continuance in office being made thereby "dependent upon my pleasure;" no decision whatever had, to my knowledge, been taken up to that time: no proposal had been made to me by the Duke of Portland, in any way

way affecting Lord Castlereagh's political situation; and no intimation had been given to me, whether my own resignation would be finally accepted or declined: That the arrangement which was in contemplation from the 8th of June to the 5th of July, in no degree affected and was intended to affect "the conduct of the expedition to the Scheldt:" That Lord Castlereagh's "removal from the war department" was first determined upon as part of the plan of which your lordship's resignation was the basis: That his "removal from the administration" was not at any time "demanded" by me: And, lastly, that I *did* employ the tender of my own resignation, not to "enforce decision" *only* (as Lord Castlereagh's letter supposes), but equally to "enforce disclosure;" and that the fact is, I did ultimately resign, rather than "enforce" the intended change, under circumstances so different from those which I had been authorized to expect.

It cannot be expected that I should labour very anxiously to refute the charge of my having "*supposed*" your lordship and others "*to be* Lord Castlereagh's *friends*;" and having, under that impression, deferred to your opinion and "authority," in a matter affecting Lord Castlereagh's interests and feelings. That your lordship, in particular, as well from near connexion as from an active and anxious partiality, was entitled to consultation, and to deference on such an occasion, is a persuasion which I felt in common, as I believe, with every member of the government, and which, not even Lord Castlereagh's disclaimer has induced me to renounce.

I should not have been surprized, nor should I have thought myself entitled to take the smallest offence,

if your lordship had, instead of concurring in the expedience of a change in Lord Castlereagh's department, protested against it, and had recommended to the Duke of Portland to advise the king to accept my resignation; and it was perfectly known by the Duke of Portland, and I am confident not unknown to your lordship, that, at any moment from the beginning of these discussions to the end, I was not only ready, but desirous to terminate them by resigning.

But when the opinion of the expediency of a change in the war department had been adopted by so many of the immediate friends of Lord Castlereagh, upon the condition that it should be reconciled to Lord Castlereagh's feelings; and when they, and your lordship among the first, had devised and concerted with the king's first minister the mode of carrying that object into execution, I cannot help thinking that I should have been much, and justly blamed if I had insisted upon taking the communication to Lord Castlereagh out of your hands into my own.

I now come to your lordship's statement. That statement is as follows:

"As it may be inferred, from a statement which has appeared in the public papers, that Lord Camden withheld from Lord Castlereagh a communication which he had been desired to make to him, it is necessary that it should be understood, that however Mr. Canning might have conceived the communication alluded to, to have been made to Lord Camden, it was never stated to Lord Camden, that the communication was made at the desire of Mr. Canning; and, so far from Lord Camden having been authorized to make the communication to Lord Castlereagh, he was absolutely restricted

restricted from so doing. As it may also be inferred that Lord Camden was expected to prepare Lord Castlereagh's mind for any proposed change, it is necessary that it should be understood, that Lord Camden never engaged to communicate to Lord Castlereagh any circumstances respecting it, before the termination of the expedition."—*Morning Chronicle*, Oct. 10.

This statement appears to me to have been much misunderstood. It has been construed, as if your lordship had meant to aver, that what you were *restricted from doing*, and what you *had not engaged to do*, were one and the same thing: whereas your lordship's statement, in point of fact, contains two distinct propositions, and refers to two separate points of time. The period during which your lordship states yourself "*not to have engaged*" to make communication to Lord Castlereagh, extends from the time of the tender of your lordship's resignation to the termination of the expedition to the Scheldt. It ought, however, to be observed, that during the first of these periods, from the 28th of April to the 12th of July, the nature of the communication to be made to Lord Castlereagh, and the nature of the restriction imposed upon your lordship, were entirely changed.

Previously to the 8th of June, the communication which your lordship should have had to make to Lord Castlereagh, was simply that I had represented the expediency of a change either in his department or mine; and that *no* decision whatever had yet been taken upon this representation. With respect to this communication, it does appear that the restriction upon your lordship was absolute and definite. But I knew nothing of its existence.

Subsequently to the 8th of June, the communication to be made to Lord Castlereagh was, that an arrangement was in contemplation for a new distribution of the business of the war department. With respect to *this* communication, not only was the *restriction* upon your lordship not indefinitely continued; but your lordship actually received on the 28th of June an *injunction to make this communication* to Lord Castlereagh at a period distinctly specified, viz. the sailing of the expedition. And this injunction was not only superseded by a voluntary act of your lordship's, the tender of your own resignation on the 12th of July, as the basis of another arrangement.

During the whole of the period, from the 12th of April to the 12th of July, the concealment practised towards Lord Castlereagh, was either without my knowledge and contrary to my belief, or it was against my earnest remonstrance. It was without my knowledge and contrary to my belief, up to the week in which parliament rose; and from that time forth it was against my earnest remonstrances. Even when I learnt, in June, that the communication had not been made by your lordship to Lord Castlereagh, I did not learn that you had been prevented from making it by any absolute restriction. It was not till the month of July, in the course of the discussions which took place from the 13th to the 20th of that month, respecting the proposal for postponing the new arrangement to be founded on your lordship's resignation, and for leaving to your lordship's discretion the time of disclosure to Lord Castlereagh, that I learnt that the silence which you had hitherto observed towards him had been imposed upon your lordship

ship by the injunctions of the Duke of Portland. I did not till then know with whom the concealment hitherto practised had originated; I frankly own that I thought it had originated with your lordship; I was anxious, above all things, that it should never be suspected that it had originated with me; or that I had been a consenting party to it, or even (till a late period) conscious of its existence. In my correspondence with the Duke of Portland at this period, therefore, at the same time that I resisted the new delay then proposed, I disclaimed any concurrence in the concealment which had been hitherto practised, and requested "that it might be remembered hereafter, whenever that concealment should be alledged against *me*, as an act of injustice to Lord Castlereagh, that it did not originate in *my* suggestion; that, so far from desiring it, I had conceived (however erroneously) *your lordship* to be the sure channel of communication to Lord Castlereagh; and that, up to a very late period, I had believed such communication to have been actually made."

The Duke of Portland, in answer, acknowledged my repeated remonstrances against the concealment: stating himself, at the same time, not to have been aware that I had at any time believed the communication to have been actually made; but assuring me "that he should be at all times ready to avow that the concealment had originated with himself (the Duke of Portland); that he had *enjoined* it to all those whom he had communicated it to, from motives which he was at all times ready to justify; and that he was desirous of taking whatever blame might have been, or might at any time be incurred by it, upon himself." This, as I have said, was

my first knowledge of any restriction whatever upon your lordship's communication to Lord Castlereagh. If I am asked why I believed your lordship to have *actually made* the communication, I answer, because it was natural that you should make it: because the expectation of your making it was the motive which induced me to desire (and I did desire it) that the communication should be made by your lordship; because the manner in which you first received that communication (as reported to me by the Duke of Portland), tended to confirm the belief that your lordship was the fit channel of communication to Lord Castlereagh; and, because I knew not of the existence of any impediment to your pursuing what appeared to me, and does still appear to me, the natural and obvious course to be pursued upon such an occasion. If it be objected, that I ought not to have been contented with *presuming* the disclosure to have been made, but ought to have diligently ascertained that it was so; first, I answer, that no person naturally sets about ascertaining that of which he entertains no doubt; and secondly, I answer, that the moment my suspicion of the fact was excited, I did set about ascertaining the truth; and that upon ascertaining it, I did remonstrate in the strongest manner against the concealment, and enforced that remonstrance by the tender of my resignation.

It was on the 26th or 27th of June (five or six days after parliament rose) that I discovered my suspicion to be well founded. On the 27th I remonstrated. On the 28th I tendered my resignation. And, in the course of the day, your lordship (as I have already stated) received an injunction to make the communication as soon as the expedition

dition should have sailed. The second of the two periods to which your lordship's statement refers, begins from the 12th of July, the day of the tender of your lordship's resignation.

It does not appear, nor does your lordship's statement aver, that at any time during this second period, the restriction which had originally been imposed upon your lordship was renewed; or that any other existed, except that which your lordship had imposed upon yourself, and which was therefore no longer binding upon your lordship, than while you might yourself be willing that it should bind you. Of the extent to which this *self-imposed* restriction appears to have gone, I had not any suspicion. I knew, indeed, that your lordship had stipulated to keep the time of the disclosure to Lord Castlereagh, in your own hands; but, subsequently to my being acquainted with that stipulation, I had received assurances, which I have already described, on behalf of "Lord Castlereagh's friends," and had relied on those assurances. It was not till the 6th of September that I learnt that those assurances had not been carried into effect. It was not till the 19th of September that I had learnt that your lordship had been no party to them. Then, indeed, I learnt that your lordship had not only "*not engaged*" to make the communication previously to the "*issue of the expedition being known here*," but that in July you had "*stated to one of our colleagues*," (not the Duke of Portland) "*who was urging an earlier communication, that the time of communication, so far as*

you were concerned, was for you to decide; but that no one had a right to say, that you did not perform that part in the transaction in which you were concerned, *if you did not open your lips to Lord Castlereagh before the issue of the expedition was known here.*"

This information I received from your lordship, in a letter dated the 19th of September. It was then perfectly new to me.

I leave your lordship to judge what must have been my surprize, when after receiving from your lordship, on the evening of the 19th of September, this frank origin of the concealment maintained, during this latter and most important period, towards Lord Castlereagh, I received on the following morning Lord Castlereagh's letter of the same date, making me responsible for that concealment.

I have not to trouble your lordship with any further observations. I have confined myself to matters growing out of Lord Castlereagh's letters, and out of your lordship's statement; on those alone have I any right to claim your lordship's attention.

To this address to your lordship I have been compelled to resort, however reluctantly, to vindicate my private honour. As to any charges against my public conduct—this is not the mode to reply to them. If any such shall be brought before me, at the proper time and place, I shall be prepared to repel them. I have the honour to be, with great respect, my lord,

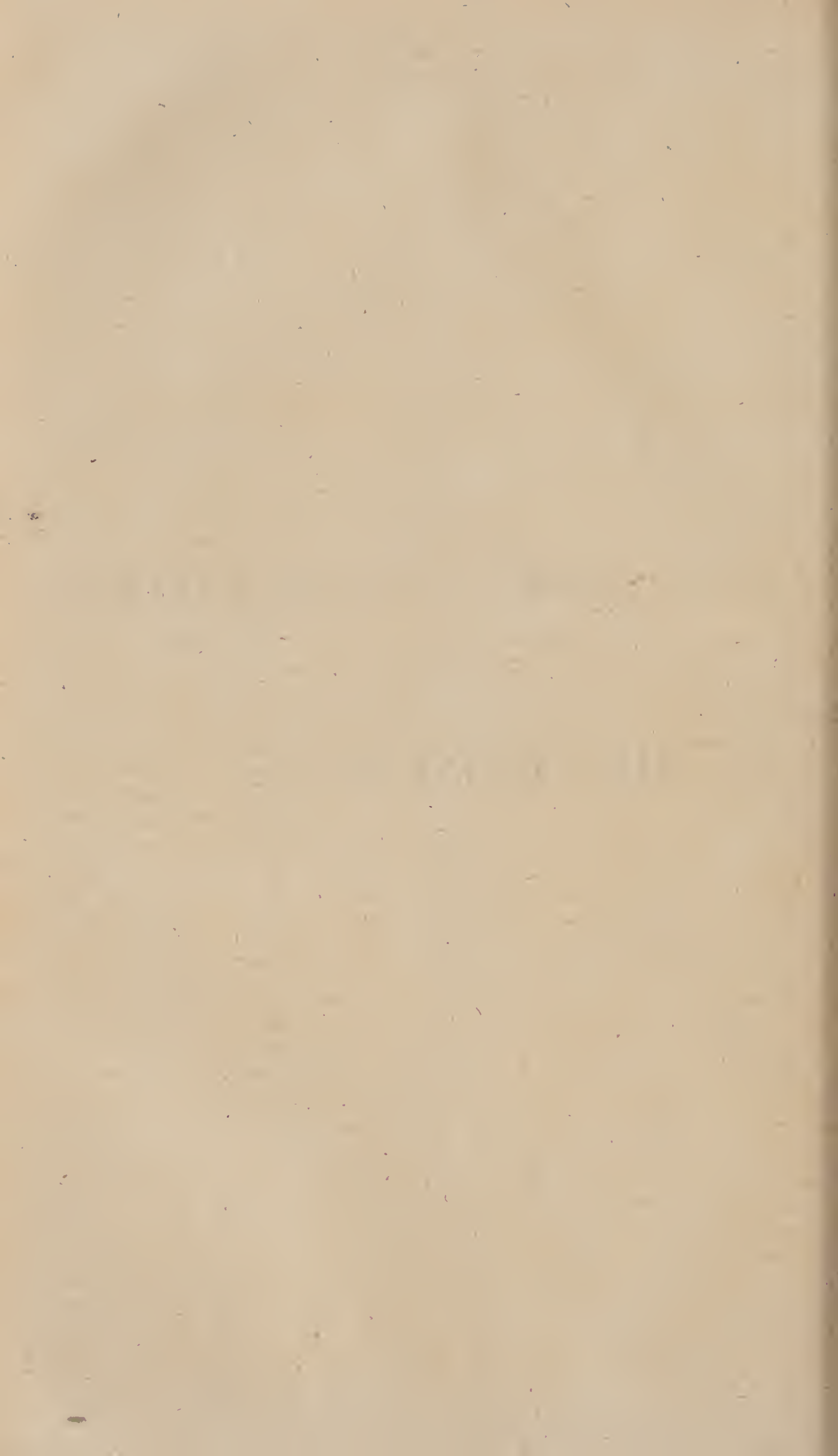
Your lordship's most obedient
humble servant,

GEORGE CANNING.

LITERARY SELECTIONS

AND

RETROSPECT.



B I O G R A P H I C A L

ANECDOTES AND CHARACTERS.

MARCH of SIR JOHN MOORE into SPAIN.

[From Mr. Moore's Narrative of the CAMPAIGN of the BRITISH ARMY.]

THE directions of government were, that the cavalry should be sent by land; but a discretionary power was given to the commander to move the infantry, by sea or land, as he judged best. On an examination of the subject, there was found to be no objection; for independently of the uncertainty and danger of a coast-voyage in winter, which, even in a prosperous, unhinges the whole machinery of an army, it was ascertained that, at Corunna, the boats were hardly the means of supplying and forwarding the stores commanded by Sir David Baird. The Spanish government appointed Colonel Lopez, a Spanish officer, who was well acquainted with the roads and resources of the country, to assist the British Army in its march, to establish magazines, and to make the necessary arrangements with Sir John Moore. He confirmed the former intelligence, and pressed him, in the name of the Junta, to march by sea; assuring him, that if he went by sea, one half of the army

could never leave the coast for want of necessaries.

The next question was, whether they should proceed in a northerly direction, through Portugal to Almeida; or should take the great eastern road to Elvas, and thence march through Estremadura. Necessity decided this question likewise; for it was found that the whole could not be subsisted on the road by Elvas; no magazines having been formed for such a body of troops. When the Spanish commissary-general was consulted on this subject, and when the quantity of meat required by the British army was explained to him, he computed, that, were they to be supplied with the rations specified, in three months all the oxen would be consumed, and very few hogs would be left in the country.

Strict inquiry was then made respecting the roads through the north of Portugal, where there was known to be abundance of food.

He found the Portuguese at Lisbon incredibly ignorant of the state of the roads of their own

country: but all agreed that cannon could not be transported over the mountains which form the northern boundary between Spain and Portugal. Even British officers, who had been sent to examine the roads, confirmed the Portuguese intelligence.

As equipments could not be procured at Corunna, as food could not be supplied on the road by Elvas, and as the artillery could not be drawn over the Portuguese mountains, it became absolutely necessary to divide the army.

This distressing measure was adopted from necessity alone. In an absolute government, like France, where the ruler is skilled in military operations, and possesses power to bring forth all the means and resources of the country, such difficulties vanish; but in Spain and Portugal, few obstructions can even be removed by the government; they can only be evaded.

It was then determined to send five brigades of artillery to accompany the cavalry through Spain; and four regiments of infantry were added for their protection.

This important corps of six thousand men was intrusted to Lieut.-general Hope, and directed to march by Elvas on the Madrid road, to Badajos and Espinar. And two brigades under General Paget moved by Elvas and Alcantara.

The rest of the army moved through Portugal.

Two brigades under General Beresford went by Coimbra and Almeida.

Three brigades under General Fraser, by Abrantes and Almeida.

Sir John Moore, thinking it of very great importance that some artillery should accompany these corps, ordered one light brigade of

six-pounders under Captain Wilmot, to proceed through Portugal, and he trusted to this officer's activity to transport the guns over the mountains by dint of labour.

The different regiments of each division followed each other in succession to facilitate the march. Sir John Moore intending, that the whole of the troops coming from Portugal should unite at Salamanca, and that Sir David Baird and General Hope should either join them there, or at Valladolid.

The several divisions having moved off, Sir John left Lisbon on the 27th of October. And I shall here introduce some remarks on the state of Spain, and on the plan of the campaign decided on by the British government.

Towards the end of summer, after the surrender of Dupont, the French army retired from Madrid and repassed the Ebro. Their force in this direction consisted of above 45,000 men, concentrated in Navarre and Biscay; their right at Bilboa, and their left at Aybar. They had besides garrisons in Barcelona, Figueras, and other fortresses in Catalonia, amounting to full 15,000 men more.

In these positions they quietly waited for reinforcements. And every foreign journal announced that vast bodies of troops of every description were hastening through Germany and France to Bayonne.

During this period the Spanish and English newspapers were reporting the enthusiastic patriotism of the Spaniards; that all ranks young and old, had taken up arms, were eager to rush upon their enemies, and determined to die rather than submit to a treacherous, cruel and impious invader. Such was the spirit of the proclamations to the

provincial juntas, — all vying with each other in magnanimous expressions.

But the British government, not trusting to such authorities, sent officers and agents into various parts of Spain, who also extolled the universal ardour of the country. And full credit appears to have been given to this description of the state of Spain: for the British army was dispatched into Spain to participate in the glory of expelling the French from the Peninsula.

The Spanish government recommended Burgos as the point of junction for the British troops, and Madrid and Valladolid were the places appointed for magazines. The government communicated to Sir John Moore, through Lord William Bentinck, that it was expected he would find between sixty and seventy thousand men assembled under Blake and Romana, in the Asturias and Galicia.

These were independent of the armies on the front and left flank of the French position. The latter was conceived to be the most numerous of any, and placed under the command of the Marquis de Castanos.

The conviction of the universal enthusiasm of the Spaniards was, at this time, so prevalent in the British Cabinet, that, in a memorial transmitted for the information of Sir John Moore by the secretary of state, it is stated, that the French armies could not enter the defiles of the Asturias without exposing themselves to be destroyed even by the armed peasants.

But the strongest proof of the misinformation upon the state of Spanish affairs is this, that in the month of September it was considered most probable, that the Spa-

niards alone would soon drive the French out of the Peninsula. This conviction was so strong, that inquiries were directed to be made by Lord William Bentinck respecting the intentions of the Spanish government upon the expulsion of the French. And directions were given, under particular circumstances, to urge the invasion of the south of France with a combined British and Spanish army.

Had these relations been well founded, and had the general fervour really existed, there could have been no objections to sending the British army by the nearest roads to join such numerous and intrepid allies. For the most timid could entertain no apprehensions, if the French were to be assaulted by such superior numbers.

Such was the flattering picture of affairs that was presented to the view of Sir John Moore, before he commenced his march, and was enabled to judge for himself.

In passing through the Portuguese territory, the troops behaved with order and regularity, which formed a striking contrast to the cruelty and rapine that of late years disgrace the French armies. The people were civil; but considerable difficulties occurred respecting provisioning the troops. Setaro, a contractor at Lisbon, had agreed to supply the divisions with rations on the march through Portugal. But this man failed in his contract; and the divisions of General Fraser and Beresford were obliged to be halted; and had it not been for the great exertions of the generals, the troops would have been long delayed.

There was also a great want of money, from which excessive inconveniences resulted. It had been supposed that government bills would

would have been accepted; but promissory notes do not obtain credit in Spain and Portugal, as in England. At Guarda, the chief magistrate refused to procure provisions without regular payments, and the peasantry had a dread of paper money. These difficulties were, however, surmounted, but not without great expence.

The commander of the forces was usually entertained with politeness at the houses of the nobility. He saw little appearance of a French party, but was surprized to observe the slight interest the Portuguese took in public affairs. They were generally well inclined, but lukewarm.

As Sir John Moore was approaching the scene of action, he gradually acquired just notions of Spanish affairs; for he was in close correspondence with men of candour and discernment who resided on the spot. Little was written by them of Spanish ardour and enthusiasm: their letters, on the contrary, were filled with details of the weakness and tardiness of the central junta.

This assembly consisted of thirty-two persons with equal powers. So numerous an executive body was ill calculated for prompt decisions. Self-interest, mutual jealousy, and discord, distracted their councils. There was no predominant leader to give uniformity to their acts, no animating passions to elevate their minds. By cold language, and foggy dullness, they chilled and damped the spirits of the nation.

The love of independence and hatred of a tyrant so instantaneously excite all the energies of Britons, that they can hardly credit the sluggish indifference that pervaded the Spanish nation, when menaced

by the rapid approach of the victorious armies of Buonaparte.

Judging what he could do, by what Spaniards were capable of, they thought it almost impossible for his army to traverse the Pyrenées in winter. But should the French have the temerity to effect such a passage, it was believed they would soon be famished. These notions were applicable to the resources formerly possessed by France. But the magnitude of the military preparations of their present enemy, and the celerity of his movements, confounded all such calculations.

Lord William Bentinck saw clearly the error committed by the Spaniards. In a dispatch about the beginning of October, he observes, with a melancholy presage, "I am every moment more and more convinced, that a blind confidence in their own strength, and natural slowness, are the rocks upon which this good ship runs the risk of being wrecked."

It was wondered at in England, why the bold patriots, who were believed to be swarming in Spain, did not charge the discomfited remains of the French armies lurking behind the Ebro: Why are they not exterminated before they are reinforced?

The Marquis de Castanos and General Blake could have answered these inquiries very satisfactorily to all intelligent military men: for it is clear, from existing documents, that the Spanish armies were so weak in numbers, and so wretchedly equipped, as to be incapable of encountering the French, even before their reinforcements arrived. This deplorable deficiency was carefully concealed, to prevent its sinking the nation into despair.

Notwithstanding the extensive correspondence which Sir John Moore

Moore carried on, he could obtain no certain accounts of the numbers or condition of the Spanish forces, before the arrival of Buonaparte. But after that event, when they had assembled all their new levies, it was found that the armies of the centre and right united, under the Generals Castanos and Palafox, formed only a force of 40,000 men. And the following extract from the resolutions of a council of war composed of the principal Spanish generals, which was held at Tudela on the 5th of November, exposes part of the distresses of these armies: At this period General Blake's army, called the army of the left, was known to be in the utmost danger; yet the council came to this resolution:

"Attention being had to the actual state of penury and want, which the army of the centre, destitute of the most necessary means, is suffering; considering also that this effective force is much less than had been supposed; it is agreed that in the present moment it cannot be of assistance to the army of the left, notwithstanding the conviction of the urgency of such assistance," &c.

To give a further view of the state of the principal Spanish army, I shall extract a short passage from the Marquis of Castanos's dispatches to the secretary of the central junta, Nov. 25, 1808.

"I leave to your excellency to conceive the critical situation of an army immoveable from its few resources, and the greatest part of which was composed of new levies, badly clothed, and badly provisioned."

This was the language of the Spaniards. And I shall give an

extract of a letter from Captain Whittingham to Lord William Bentinck, which will show the impression that the appearance of part of their army made upon an English officer.

*"Head quarters, Calahorra,
23th Oct. 1808.*

"On the 25th, General Castanos left this place for Logrono. We arrived about four in the evening. The army of Castile was drawn up to receive the general. Its strength about 11,000 men. But, to form any idea of its composition, it is absolutely necessary to have seen it. It is a complete mass of miserable peasantry, without clothing, without organization, and with few officers that deserve the name.

"The general and principal officers have not the least confidence in their troops; and, what is yet worse, the men have no confidence in themselves.

"This is not an exaggerated picture; it is a true portrait," &c. &c.

Such was the condition and amount of the troops under Castanos and Palafox towards November, after all were collected that could be raised. But in August and September they were, doubtless, much fewer. Castanos found it dangerous to approach the French posts. The Spaniards sometimes engaged in skirmishes; but were so much worsted, that they found it prudent to keep at a distance, and wait for reinforcements.

A similar reason accounts for the inactivity of General Blake during these important months. The disposition to exaggeration in Spain is such, that it is difficult even

even now to ascertain what was the number of this army. But it certainly could never have been considerable; for after the arrival of Romana's corps, of upwards of 8000 men, and every exertion that was made, it appears from Captain Carrol's dispatches that the actual number that fought the French did not amount to 17,000 men. And the want of officers, of food, of clothing, and of every species of warlike equipment, was lamentable. Instead of General Blake being culpable for not attacking the French, his error undoubtedly was extreme rashness.

Sir John Moore, by the close correspondence he carried on with Lord William Bentinck, Mr. Stuart, Colonel Graham, and others, gradually penetrated the disguises with which the Spanish government enveloped their affairs. It is self-evident, that a judicious plan of a campaign can be formed only by reflecting upon the actual state of things; and must necessarily be ill contrived, and probably unsuccessful, if drawn up on false intelligence. Yet the Spanish juntas exerted all their finesse to deceive, not their enemy, but their ally; and succeeded so perfectly, as to lead them to execute a plan adapted to a state of circumstances the reverse of their real condition. The high-sounding proclamations, exaggerated numbers, invented victories, and vaunted enthusiasm, could not deceive him whom it was useful to deceive. Buonaparte possessed ample means of obtaining exact information. There were traitors, even among the loudest seeming patriots; who enabled him to calculate with perfect accuracy, the precise proportion of patriotism scattered through Spain.

Yet there are some facts that would lead one almost to suspect, that the Spanish juntas, from excess of presumption, ignorance, and a heated imagination, were so blinded, as to have misled the British cabinet unintentionally. For it is a well-known fact, that at first they considered Spain as more than a match for France. They applied to us for arms and money, but said they wanted no men; believing they could raise more soldiers than they required. How long this infatuation continued, I cannot pretend to say; but they appear to have acquiesced in the offer of British auxiliaries on the 26th of September.

It happened that accounts were brought to the junta at Aranjuez, Oct. 4th, of "a letter having been intercepted, addressed by the governor of Bayonne to Marshal Jourdan (the French commander in chief), wherein it is stated, that between the 16th of October and the 16th of November, reinforcements to the amount of 66,000 infantry, and from 5 to 7,000 cavalry might be expected to enter Spain.

"Mr. Stuart will tell you that this news is credited."

That this news was correct, I have no doubt. Buonaparte, though he constantly attempts to deceive the world by his public proclamations, has too much political wisdom to deceive his own generals. Nor could he have thrown this letter purposely in the way of the Spaniards, as he could not wish to rouse them from their lethargy.

This intelligence threw the central junta into great alarm; they began to think that the business was serious; Castanos was ordered to his post, and such levies as they could

ould collect were sent forward to Ebro.

Urgent and alarming as was the situation of affairs, the dilatoriness of the Spanish government could not be corrected. So that when David Baird arrived at Coruña, Oct. 13th, the junta of Galicia refused him permission to land the troops. Sir David was astonished, and sent off expresses to Madrid and to Lisbon. He at last obtained leave to land; but his reception was cold, and there was such a total want of all exertion to assist him in equipping the army for its advance, that he wrote to Sir John Moore to know if he had the sanction of the supreme junta for the admission of British troops into Spain.

He was at last satisfied as to this point; but he found, that whatever was necessary either for the subsistence or movement of the troops must be procured solely by his own exertions; and by paying a high price to those whom he came to assist.

Sir John marched on rapidly, and reached Atalia, Nov. 5th. Here it was discovered, contrary to the information received at Lisbon, that the roads, though very bad, were practicable for artillery. But the ignorance of the Portuguese respecting their own country is such, that the road was found out only from stage to stage by the British officers. This was now a subject of serious regret; for had the road, bad as it was, been known at first, General Hope's division could have marched with the rest of the army.

Dispatches were now sent to meet him at Truxillo, to desire that he would not trust to report, but send forward officers to examine if there were a nearer road

practicable for the guns, without going round by Madrid.

Letters were here received from Lord William Bentinck, acquainting Sir John Moore that the French reinforcements were entering Biscay, and that Castanos was making some movements which might bring on an action; and also that the central junta referred Sir John to concert his movements with General Castanos.

The general arrived at Almeida, Nov. 8th; it rained incessantly; the troops, however, moved on in spite of the weather, and behaved extremely well: but it is painful to be obliged to make an exception, of some soldiers who had committed many daring crimes. The commander-in-chief determined to put a stop to such disorders. One of the soldiers, who was detected in marauding and robbing, was tried by a general court-martial, found guilty, and sentenced to death, Sir John Moore then issued the following order.

“ GENERAL ORDERS.

November 11th, 1808.

“ Nothing could be more pleasing to the commander of the
“ forces, than to show mercy to a
“ soldier of good character under
“ his command, who had been led
“ inadvertently to commit a crime;
“ but he should consider himself
“ neglectful of his duty, if, from
“ ill-judged lenity, he pardoned
“ deliberate villainy.

“ The crime committed by the
“ prisoner now under sentence, is
“ of this nature, and there is no
“ thing in his private character or
“ conduct which could give the
“ least hope of his amendment,
“ were he pardoned: he must
“ therefore

“therefore suffer the awful punishment to which he has been condemned.

“The commander of the forces trusts that the troops he commands will seldom oblige him to resort to punishments of this kind; and such is his opinion of British soldiers, that he is convinced they will not, if the officers do their duty, and pay them proper attention.

“He however takes this opportunity to declare to the army, that he is determined to show no mercy to plunderers and marauders; or, in other words, to thieves and villains.

“The army is sent by England to aid and support the Spanish nation, not to plunder and rob its inhabitants. And soldiers who so far forget what is due to their own honour, and the honour of their country, as to commit such acts, shall be delivered over to justice: the military law must take its course, and the punishment it awards shall be inflicted.”

On the 11th of November the advanced guard crossed a rivulet which divides Spain from Portugal, and marched to Ciudad Rodrigo. The governor of this town met Sir John two miles off; a salute was fired from the ramparts, and he was conducted to the principal house of the town, and hospitably entertained.

The appearance of the country, and the manners of the people, change most remarkably, immediately on crossing the boundary between Spain and Portugal; and the advantage is entirely in favour of Spain. We were received, on approaching Ciudad Rodrigo, with shouts of “Viva los Ingleses!”

This agreeable reception was gra-

tifying; and the general proceeded next day to San Martin, a village seven leagues distant, where he lodged at the house of the curate, a sensible, respectable man, who, in the course of conversation, told him, that on the same day the preceding year he had lodged the French General Loison, on his march to Portugal: and that Junot and the other French generals had slept there in succession.

On the 13th of November, Sir John arrived with his advanced guard at Salamanca, where he halted, intending to assemble there all the troops which were coming from Portugal. But before he entered the town, he learnt the fate of what was called the army of Estremadura.

The Spanish corps, consisting of about 12,000 raw recruits, commanded by a very young man, the Count Belvedere, had advanced without support to Burgos, an open town, in the front of the French army. So extraordinary a manœuvre was followed by a natural result. They were attacked by a superior force, and completely routed.

A few hours after Sir John had arrived at Salamanca, he wrote to Lord William Bentinck, at Madrid, who was acting as minister from the British court.

Sir John Moore to Lord William Bentinck.

Salamanca, 13th Nov. 1808.

“MY DEAR LORD,

“I arrived here early in the afternoon. I am not only jaded by my journey, but also by the different people I have been obliged to speak to; and only that I am anxious to send a courier to you as soon as possible, I should

“ should have delayed writing to
“ you until morning. I received
“ upon the road your two letters of
“ the 8th, and that of the ninth with
“ the inclosures, some of which
“ shall be returned to you by the
“ next courier.

“ I am sorry to say, from Sir
“ David Baird, I hear nothing but
“ complaints of the junta of Co-
“ runna, who afford him no assist-
“ ance. They promise every thing,
“ but give nothing; and after wait-
“ ing day after day for carts, which
“ they had promised to procure,
“ for the carriage of stores, his
“ commissary was at last obliged
“ to contract for them at an exor-
“ bitant price, and then got them.
“ This is really a sort of conduct
“ quite intolerable to troops that the
“ Spanish government have asked
“ for, and for whose advance they
“ were daily pressing.

“ On my arrival here, and telling
“ Colonel O’Lawler that I wished
“ to have supplies immediately pro-
“ vided on the road from Astorga
“ to this place, for the march of
“ the troops from Corunna, he be-
“ gan by telling me, that a power
“ which he should have got, and
“ which it was promised should be
“ sent after him from Madrid, had
“ not been sent; that he had thus
“ no authority, and had hitherto
“ been acting upon his own credit.
“ Part of this was a trick—*pour se*
“ *faire valoir*; it tended only,
“ however, to show me, that he
“ was not the man who should
“ have been selected for us; but,
“ if selected, he should have been
“ furnished with every authority to
“ make him useful. I run over all
“ this to you, though, perhaps, it
“ should properly be addressed to
“ Mr. Frere; but to you I can
“ state it with more ease, and I
“ shall thank you to speak to Frere

“ upon it, when I hope he will
“ have some serious communica-
“ tion with the Spanish ministers,
“ and plainly tell them, if they ex-
“ pect the advance of the British
“ army, they must pay somewhat
“ more attention to its wants. Pro-
“ per officers must be sent to me,
“ vested with full powers to call
“ forth the resources of the coun-
“ try when they are wanted, and
“ without delay; the same as is
“ done, I presume, for the Spanish
“ armies; we shall pay, but they
“ are not to allow us to be imposed
“ upon, but to tell us what is paid
“ by the Spanish government in
“ such cases. We find no difficulty
“ with the people; they receive us
“ every where well. But the au-
“ thorities are backward, and not
“ like those of a country who wish
“ our assistance.

“ The officer you mention to
“ have been sent to Sir David Baird,
“ travelled by slow journeys, as if
“ in profound peace, and conse-
“ quently arrived too late, and
“ when little wanted. The head
“ of Baird’s column is this day at
“ Astorga; but had they waited
“ for the said officer, it would have
“ been still at Corunna. The Spa-
“ niards seem to think that every
“ body should fly but themselves.
“ The troops from Lisbon begin to
“ march in here to-morrow, and
“ will continue to arrive by corps
“ daily until the 23d, when the
“ whole will be assembled. I have
“ directed Baird also to continue
“ the march of his troops on Bena-
“ vente, as soon as supplies per-
“ mit it; and by the time the head
“ reaches Benavente, I shall pro-
“ bably direct it to proceed on to
“ Zamora, and close the whole as
“ near to me at this place, as cover
“ will admit; probably by the 23d
“ instant the rear of Baird’s will
“ be

“be about Zamora, but it will de-
 “pend on the aid and activity of
 “the authorities of the country;
 “if they are slow, it is impossible
 “for me to be quick. All this,
 “however, is upon the supposi-
 “tion that the French do not dis-
 “turb us; and I suppose you
 “know they are at Burgos. At
 “Ciudad Rodrigo, I received a let-
 “ter by express from El Conde de
 “Belvedere, from Burgos, dated
 “the 9th, stating that he expected
 “to be attacked by superior num-
 “bers, and begging that I would
 “hasten to his assistance. I wrote
 “to him that I had been march-
 “ing for some time with all the
 “haste I could; but, if he was to
 “be attacked so soon, it was im-
 “possible for me to render him
 “any assistance; and he should
 “report his situation to Madrid.
 “Upon my arrival here, I was in-
 “formed by the Marquis de Ci-
 “nalbo, that the Spanish troops
 “had been forced to retire from
 “Burgos, and the French were in
 “possession of it. I hope the let-
 “ter I wrote to general Castanos
 “will draw from him some ex-
 “planation of his views, by which
 “I may regulate my motions.
 “But his movements, and those of
 “the army under General Blake,
 “require some explanation, in or-
 “der to be understood: for, though
 “they know that a British force
 “is marching from different parts,
 “in order to unite, they have
 “marched away from the point of
 “assembly, and have left us ex-
 “posed to be attacked and inter-
 “rupted before our junction; but
 “if we were united, he can hardly
 “expect that, with my force, I
 “should march forward and place
 “myself within reach of attack
 “from such superior numbers,
 “whilst his and Blake’s armies are

“removed at such a distance as to
 “be able to render me no assist-
 “ance: but all this I expect will
 “be made plain, when I hear from
 “General Castanos. With respect
 “to magazines, it is impossible for
 “me to say where they ought to
 “be made, while I am so much
 “in the dark as to the movements
 “which are likely to occur; but
 “if the country is abundant, as is
 “said, we cannot want. But I
 “must have persons of an autho-
 “rity attached to me, who are ac-
 “quainted with the resources, and
 “who, knowing the interior go-
 “vernment, customs, and man-
 “ners of Spain, can call them forth
 “for me and the British troops, in
 “the same manner as they are
 “called forth for those of Spain.
 “This regards not only provisions,
 “but carts, horses, quarters, and,
 “in short, all the wants of troops.
 “With the aid of persons of this de-
 “scription, our own commissaries
 “can do; but without them we can
 “do nothing. The foundation of
 “all this must be an order to the
 “authorities throughout the pro-
 “vinces, to give every aid to the
 “British, as to the Spanish troops.
 “It is a matter of indifference who
 “pays these officers;—it would be
 “more consistent with the dignity
 “of Spain, that they paid them;
 “though we should reward them
 “according to their deserts.

“With respect to the magazines
 “at Madrid, it is very likely to be
 “a proper place for Spain to col-
 “lect a considerable *depôt* of va-
 “rious kinds. It is their capital,
 “and they know best; but it does
 “not strike me a place where the
 “British could be called upon to
 “make any collection. We shall
 “establish small magazines for
 “consumption in the neighbour-
 “hood where we are acting. These
 “great

“ great reserves, which a country
“ makes for general supply, should
“ be made by Spain; when we ap-
“ proach it, we may draw from it,
“ and pay for what we get. But
“ Spain should make it, and be
“ at the expence and trouble of its
“ conservation: as I believe we
“ are giving money to Spain,
“ part of it may be applied by them
“ in this manner; but it is they
“ that should do it—not we.

“ I have no objection to you, or
“ Mr. Frere, representing the ne-
“ cessity of as many more British
“ troops as you think proper. It
“ is certain that the agents, which
“ our government have hitherto
“ employed, have deceived them.
“ For affairs here are by no means
“ in the flourishing state they are
“ represented and believed to be in
“ England; and the sooner the
“ truth is known in England, the
“ better. But you must observe,
“ my lord, that whatever is criti-
“ cal must now be decided by the
“ troops which are here: the
“ French, I suspect, are ready, and
“ will not wait. I differ only with
“ you in one point:—when you
“ say, the chief and great obstacle
“ and resistance to the French will
“ be afforded by the English ar-
“ my. If that be so, Spain is lost.
“ The English army, I hope, will
“ do all which can be expected from
“ their numbers: but the safety of
“ Spain depends upon the union of
“ its inhabitants, their enthusiasm
“ in their cause; and in their firm
“ and devoted determination to die
“ rather than submit to the French;
“ nothing short of this will enable
“ them to resist the formidable at-
“ tack about to be made upon them.
“ If they will adhere, our aid can
“ be of the greatest use to them;
“ but, if not, we shall soon be out-

“ numbered, were our force qua-
“ drupled.

“ I am, therefore, much more
“ anxious to see exertion and ener-
“ gy in the government, and en-
“ thusiasm in their armies, than to
“ have my force augmented. The
“ moment is a critical one—my
“ own situation is particularly so—
“ I have never seen it otherwise;
“ but I have pushed into Spain at
“ all hazards;—this was the order
“ of my government, and it was
“ the will of the people of England.
“ I shall endeavour to do my best,
“ hoping that all the bad that may
“ happen, will not happen; but
“ that with a share of bad, we
“ shall also have a portion of good
“ fortune.

“ This is a long letter for one who
“ began by saying that he was jaded;
“ but I have been gradually drawn
“ on by the interest I take in the
“ subject. You will communi-
“ cate to Mr. Frere such parts as
“ you think proper; and he will,
“ I hope, act upon them. Be so
“ good as to excuse me to him, for
“ not particularly addressing him-
“ self. Lord Paget was at Corunna
“ the 7th, with two regiments, the
“ 7th and 10th hussars; the other
“ three were following fast.

“ I remain, &c.

“ JOHN MOORE.”

Two nights after writing the foregoing, Sir John was awakened by an express from General Pignatelli, the governor of the province, to inform him that the French army had advanced, and taken possession of the city of Valladolid, which is only twenty leagues from Salamanca.

It should not be forgotten that the general had been informed officially, that his entry into Spain would

would be covered by 60 or 70,000 men: and Burgos was the city intended for the point of union for the different divisions of the British army. But already not only Burgos, but Valladolid, was in possession of the enemy; and he found himself with an advanced corps in an open town, three marches from the French army, without even a Spanish picquet to cover his front.

He had at this time only three brigades of infantry, without a gun, at Salamanca. The remainder were moving up in succession, but the whole could not arrive in less than ten days.

This situation being extremely different from what he had been taught to expect, and that upon which the instructions of the secretary of state were founded, called for very different measures. For if the French advanced in force, he had no option but to fall back on Ciudad Rodrigo; the country round which being poor, could not subsist the troops long; and if he retreated to Portugal, he hardly improved his situation.

The general had long foreseen the possibility of the French advancing, to prevent the junction of the British troops; and was quite at a loss to comprehend the motives for the separation of the Spanish armies; one of which was posted in Biscay, and the other in Arragon, while the country in front was left open, as into suffer the French to advance upon the British before they were united.

It appeared also very singular, that the advance of the French so far into the country had produced no sensation among the people. The fact was established by a letter from General Pignatelli, the captain-general of the province; yet the news was brought by no other

channel. The people were all tranquil, and employed in their ordinary occupations and amusements; and seemed to know or care very little about public matters.

The general assembled the junta: he communicated to them the capture of the city of Valladolid, and explained the reasons "that might render it necessary for him to retire at present to Ciudad Rodrigo; that this temporary retreat ought not to discourage them: but that they should employ every means in their power to rouse the enthusiasm of the people, which seemed to be somewhat abated."

He represented, "that no nation had obtained independence, without making great sacrifices; and though the English would be useful auxiliaries, that success could be gained only by the union and efforts of the Spaniards themselves."

He told them, "he must have the use of all the carts and mules in the country, to transport his magazines to Ciudad Rodrigo, should it become requisite; and that the troops, with three days' provisions, should be kept in readiness. But," he added, "that he had not yet stopped the advance of the rest of the army from Portugal; he was desirous of assembling it there, and would not retire without an absolute necessity."

All this was listened to with calm acquiescence. Indeed the passive disposition of the Spaniards was very remarkable; for they heard of the generous intentions of the British, and of the destructive ravages of the French, with almost equal indifference. The apathy of the people proved the inactivity of their rulers; for, on such an occasion,

, there should not only have numerous armies on foot, but every man in Spain should have an armed, and ready to act when required. Nor did this appear to be impracticable: for the supineness was not owing to disaffection among the people; the peasantry and lower orders were all well disposed; but in ascending to the higher ranks, the spirit of independence evaporated.

The general detached some intelligent officers, with strong patrols, to gain intelligence; by whom he soon learnt, that a thousand French cavalry, with two pieces of artillery, had entered Valladolid on the 10th, and retired to Valencia next morning. But he understood that the infantry had advanced beyond Burgos. He then sent orders to Generals Baird and Hope to concentrate their divisions, to advance with all speed to Salamanca, but to be upon their guard on their march.

It is necessary here to go back a very little, to mention that Mr. Stuart arrived at Aranjuez at the beginning of November, as minister plenipotentiary of Great Britain. He of course superseded Lord William Bentinck and Mr. Stuart; who, after having resided some time in Spain, and from personal qualifications, had got acquainted with many of the leading men, and had acquired a clear insight into the state of affairs.

Their communications with each other, and with Colonel Graham, who was at the head-quarters of the principal Spanish army, as well as their correspondence with Sir John Moore, were all conducted with harmony, and utility to the common use.

This change in the administration of the civil department, occurred

at the period when the events were hastening to a crisis.

Mr. Frere had unfortunately acquired his notions of Spanish politics in London; and his prepossessions were much too strong to be effaced by the observations of his predecessors, or even to be altered by the most opposing facts. His peculiar notions were totally unknown to Sir John Moore, who, to inform him of his situation, and to promote the public service, wrote as follows, from Almeida:

From Sir John Moore to the Right Honourable J. Hookham Frere.

Almeida, 10 Nov. 1808.

"SIR,

"As Mr. Stuart mentioned in a late letter which I had the honour to receive from him, that he was in hourly expectation of your arrival at Madrid, I conclude that ere this you have reached that capital.

"I shall not trouble you with any detail of my movements, as you will obtain every necessary information respecting them from Mr. Stuart and Lord William Bentinck, with both of whom I have been in correspondence ever since I was appointed to this command.

"The supreme junta have fixed upon General Castanos, as the person with whom I am to correspond, and to combine whatever operations are to be undertaken by the troops under my command. This cannot but be considered as a step towards appointing him the chief commander of the Spanish army; and having gone so far, it is a pity they did not go a little farther, and at once give him the appointment. This decision of

"the

“ the junta was only communi-
 “ cated to me a few days ago, by
 “ Lord William, in a letter which
 “ I received on my road to this
 “ place. I have written to General
 “ Castanos, to give him every in-
 “ formation with respect to the
 “ British force, the probable period
 “ of its junction; and I have re-
 “ quested to know from him, his
 “ plans, and his instructions, with
 “ respect to the co-operation he
 “ expects from us. It is needless to
 “ say what different measures I
 “ might have pursued, had I been
 “ sooner informed of the strength
 “ and condition of the different
 “ Spanish armies. As it is, the
 “ principal part of the infantry
 “ from Portugal is now passing the
 “ frontier; and by the middle of
 “ this month will be collected at
 “ Salamanca and Ciudad Rodrigo.
 “ General Hope, with the artillery,
 “ the cavalry, and 3000 infantry,
 “ will be in the neighbourhood of
 “ Madrid on the 22d; and the
 “ head of Sir David Baird’s corps
 “ will reach Astorga on the 14th.
 “ If nothing adverse happens, we
 “ shall be united early in Decem-
 “ ber, more or less advanced, ac-
 “ cording to the situation and
 “ movements of the armies now
 “ upon the Ebro. In the mean
 “ time I shall wait at Salamanca,
 “ with the troops assembling there,
 “ until Baird and Hope are more
 “ forward. Much is still to be
 “ done in the article of equipment
 “ and commissariat arrangement.
 “ As I see more myself of the re-
 “ sources of the country, I shall be
 “ able to decide the mode to be fol-
 “ lowed for securing to us our sup-
 “ plies; for the present we must
 “ depend upon the Spanish govern-
 “ ment, and their chief director,
 “ Don Vincenti.

“ I understand from Sir David

“ Baird, that you were kind enoug
 “ to spare him 40,000*l.* from th
 “ monies you brought with yo
 “ from England. I have to than
 “ you for this supply: for, when
 “ he applied to me, it was with
 “ great difficulty I was able to spa
 “ him 8,000*l.* We are now in th
 “ greatest distress for money; an
 “ if a quantity does not speedily a
 “ rive from England, we must de
 “ pend upon the generosity of th
 “ Spaniards for our supplies.
 “ I doubt at present if there is wher
 “ewithal, after the 24th: of th
 “ month, to pay the troops the
 “ subsistence. I fear that in Eng
 “ land, until very lately, they we
 “ not aware of the impossibility o
 “ procuring money either in Por
 “ tugal or Spain. I leave this to
 “ morrow, and shall proceed to
 “ Ciudad Rodrigo to Salamanca
 “ where I shall hope to have th
 “ honour to hear from you.

“ I have the honour to be, &c.

“ JOHN MOORE.

“ I trust you will have the good
 “ ness to excuse whatever is infor
 “ mal in this letter; you may be
 “ lieve it proceeds from no disre
 “ spect to you, but I have not bee
 “ informed, and am quite ignoran
 “ of your appointment, whethe
 “ ambassador or minister plenipo
 “ tentiary; and thought it better
 “ to give you no titles, rather than
 “ the wrong one.”

To this letter the following answer was sent:

From the Right Honourable J. H.
 Frere to his Excellency Sir John
 Moore, K. B.

“ *Aranjuez, Nov. 13, 1808*

“ SIR,

“ I have this evening received
 “ the letter which you did me the
 “ honour

honour to direct to me from Almeida, and which was delivered to me by Lord William Bentinck. His messenger, who sets off with the account, which I received only this morning, of the unlucky affair of the 10th, near Burgos, enables me to thank you for the view which you have given me of your intended movements, and to mitigate the bad news, by the assurance which I think I can venture to give, that it has not created any visible degree of uneasiness or discouragement in the minds of the leading persons here. The people, though much irritated, as it is said, are still farther from being dejected than their leaders. Five thousand men marched forward to-day from Madrid, and two regiments from Toledo. The fixed spirit of resistance which, without calculation of danger or of means, seems to have rooted itself in the minds of the people, appears superior to any reverses.

"You will have heard of overtures of negotiation; it seems doubtful whether Buonaparte meant to include Spain in the number of our allies with whom he proposes to treat; and still more, whether he would offer terms which it would be possible to accept. I should incline to think, therefore, that he had no other object than that of cajoling the Emperor of Russia, and facilitating the conscription. He will not disunite Spain and England, and I feel confident that he will not succeed in lowering the tone, or relaxing the spirit, of this country.

"You probably are already acquainted with the appointment of the Marquis Romana to the command of Castanos's and 1809.

"Blake's army. His nomination is, I understand, a popular one at Madrid, and his long absence has given him an advantage which is peculiar to him, that of being wholly unmixed in the political intrigues of the day.

"I shall be obliged to Mr. Stuart for his assistance in the military as well as other parts of my correspondence; a circumstance which I trust will not be unsatisfactory to you, as it will, I am persuaded, be conducive to the furthering of the public service.

"I have the honour to be,

"Sir,

"Your obedient humble servant,
"J. H. FRERE."

The preconceived notions of Mr. Frere were evinced even in this first letter, for he slurs over the defeat of the Estremaduran army, by calling it "the unlucky affair of the 10th;" and he describes most emphatically the determined spirit of a people whom he had just come among.

The correspondence continues:

From Sir John Moore to the Right Honourable J. Hookham Frere.

"Salamanca, Nov. 16, 1808.

"SIR,

"I had last night the honour to receive your letter of the 13th, together with letters of the 14th from Mr. Stuart and Lord William Bentinck.

"It does not appear certain whether the French have advanced in any force to Valladolid; and there is no reason to think, from the information which reached me last night, that they have passed it.

"In the course of this day all
B this

“this will be ascertained, from the
“reports of the officers and other
“persons I have sent out.

“General Pignatelli’s conduct
“was certainly not such as be-
“came a person holding a situa-
“tion of such trust. He seems to
“have run off upon the first alarm.
“It was right for him to retire,
“and put his person in safety, but
“no farther; there he should have
“stopped, and not have left the
“people without a head. It was
“his duty, I conceive, to have col-
“lected information, in order to
“communicate it to me, and to
“those, who, like me, were mate-
“rially interested. I did not know,
“until I received Mr. Stuart’s let-
“ter, that the defeat of the Estre-
“madura army had been so com-
“plete.

“It was, however, nothing more
“than was to be expected; when
“so small a corps was committed
“so near to the strength of the
“enemy.

“I have been unable hitherto
“to understand the movements
“and positions of the Spanish ar-
“mies: but I have taken it for
“granted that they were formed
“from local circumstances, and a
“knowledge of the country, of
“which I was ignorant. I should
“otherwise have said they were
“upon a scale much too great for
“the strength of their armies. I
“begin to fear that this is the case,
“and that, if their system be not
“changed, we shall all of us very
“soon be beaten in detail. To co-
“ver and protect the British army,
“whilst upon its march from such
“distant points, in order to unite,
“never seems to have been in the
“contemplation of the Spanish ge-
“nerals; and now, from the po-
“sition the French have taken, the
“accomplishment of it is become

“exceedingly precarious. My po-
“sition here is a bad one, in as
“much as my movements in it are
“confined, and leave nothing but
“a barren country to retire upon.
“I should undoubtedly be better
“at Valladolid; but it is impossi-
“ble for me to go there, whilst
“the French in force are so near
“it, and the Spanish armies are at
“such a distance. Until my force
“is united, I must be covered and
“protected. As the corps come
“to me from such opposite direc-
“tions, Corunna and Madrid, I
“cannot move towards one, with-
“out increasing my distance, and
“forsaking the other; and whilst
“they are each marching towards
“me, if I am forced to fall back,
“they will both risk to bedestroy-
“ed. The difference hitherto be-
“tween the position of the Spanish
“and French armies, as they have
“struck me, is this—the French,
“in order to concentrate, or to
“strengthen either flank, move
“upon the chord, the Spaniards
“upon the circumference; the
“movements of the one are short,
“and can be easily concealed,
“those of the other extended, and
“exposed to be interrupted. I
“shall write to General Hope to
“consider it as his object to join
“me at this place with all expedi-
“tion; but to be guided by the
“information he receives of the
“movements of the enemy, and to
“use his discretion. I shall direct
“General Baird to collect the
“whole of his corps at and about
“Astorga, whence his retreat to
“Corunna is safe; but not to come
“towards me, until I give him no-
“tice; and in this I shall be guided
“by what I perceive of the ene-
“my on this side of the Ebro, and
“from the information I expect to
“receive from the Marquis de la
“Romana,

“ Romana, of his designs, and the
 “ direction he means to give to the
 “ Spanish armies. I know not
 “ where to address the Marquis; I
 “ have therefore written this mili-
 “ tary letter to you, and request
 “ you will communicate its con-
 “ tents to him.

“ The contents of the two let-
 “ ters I addressed lately to General
 “ Castanos, and which were sent
 “ under cover to Lord William
 “ Bentinck, will of course be given
 “ to him;—the tone of concilia-
 “ tion which I have adopted in my
 “ letters to General Castanos, and
 “ which I shall continue to the
 “ Marquis Romana, I trust you
 “ will approve. I wish to impress
 “ upon whoever commands the
 “ Spanish armies, that I consider
 “ myself as having but one inte-
 “ rest with him, and that he will
 “ find me as ready as any of his
 “ own generals to follow and sup-
 “ port his plans. The power and
 “ controul over the direction of my
 “ own army, which, as command-
 “ ing an auxiliary force, I have, I
 “ shall keep out of sight, and hope
 “ never to be obliged to exert. You
 “ already know how much we are
 “ distressed for money. Mr. Stuart
 “ and Lord William both say that
 “ it is to be got by loan, or for bills,
 “ at Madrid. This differs from the
 “ information given to me by Mr.
 “ Kennedy; but I shall be happy
 “ to find that they are right, and
 “ that Mr. Kennedy has been mis-
 “ informed. If Mr. Erskine were
 “ here, I should send him to Ma-
 “ drid for that purpose; for if mo-
 “ ney is to be found, such are our
 “ necessities that we must get it
 “ upon any terms: but, as Mr.
 “ Erskine has not joined me, and
 “ as, in his absence, I cannot spare
 “ Mr. Kennedy, I shall take it as
 “ a very particular favour if you

“ will be kind enough to give me
 “ your assistance in this matter:—
 “ I have desired Mr. Kennedy to
 “ write to you upon it.

“ With respect to our supplies,
 “ I do not apprehend want. If
 “ they exist in the country, and we
 “ have money, our commissariat
 “ will procure them. What we
 “ want is, some persons conver-
 “ sant in the mode, and furnished
 “ with authority to call forth the
 “ aid of the country and of the
 “ magistrates and civil authorities;
 “ if Don Vincenti be the person
 “ entrusted by the Spanish govern-
 “ ment for the supply of their
 “ army, some person from him, to
 “ whom he has delegated his infor-
 “ mation and his correspondence
 “ with his agents in the provinces,
 “ is the person whom the Spanish
 “ government should appoint to
 “ attend the British army, and aid
 “ with his knowledge and with his
 “ authority our commissariat;—I
 “ should rather this person were a
 “ man of character, not looking
 “ solely to making a property of
 “ us, but that could be trusted, and
 “ likely to be satisfied with having
 “ discharged an important duty,
 “ and with such pecuniary reward
 “ as would necessarily attend it.—

“ * * * * *

“ I have but one more subject
 “ to touch upon:—were the offi-
 “ cers employed with the different
 “ armies to correspond, they might
 “ have been useful before either
 “ you or I were sent to Spain, and
 “ when it was necessary for go-
 “ vernment at home to know what
 “ was passing; but I own that I
 “ disapprove of any person being
 “ authorized to correspond offici-
 “ ally with government but you
 “ and me. * * * *

“ If I want an English officer at
 “ any time to assist my communi-
 cation

“ cation with any of the Spanish
 “ generals with whom I am act-
 “ ing, I can send one; but, in ge-
 “ neral, I shall prefer a direct cor-
 “ respondence with the general
 “ himself, who will, of course,
 “ communicate many particulars
 “ to me, which it is unnecessary
 “ and highly improper for him to
 “ communicate to such officers as
 “ are in general sent to them. My
 “ wish is, to upset the whole sys-
 “ tem: to send them with their
 “ Spanish rank to England; and
 “ to send, as they may occasionally
 “ be wanted either by yourself or
 “ me, officers, or others, who will
 “ look to no rank or emolument
 “ but from their own country, in
 “ whose duty alone they should
 “ consider themselves employed,
 “ and who, when no longer want-
 “ ed, return to their former occu-
 “ pations.

“ I have the honour to remain, &c.

“ JOHN MOORE.”

Some of the predictions con-
 tained in the above letter were but
 too soon verified; for next day a
 letter was received from Mr. Stuart
 at Madrid, of which the following
 is an extract:

Madrid, 17th Nov. 1808.

“ The defeat experienced by
 “ Blake on the 11th of this month,
 “ the occupation of Valladolid by
 “ the French, and the distance be-
 “ tween the different divisions of
 “ your army, give room for the
 “ most melancholy reflections. The
 “ orders which have been trans-
 “ mitted by the junta, in conse-
 “ quence of this state of things,
 “ will, I fear, be very inadequate
 “ to meet the evil.

“ The advance of a few regi-
 “ ments in Andalusia, the concen-

“ tration of the runaways from
 “ Burgos, &c. at Segovia, and the
 “ attempt to render the passes of
 “ the Somasierra and the Guada-
 “ rama defensible, will not save
 “ Madrid or Spain. And unless
 “ Blake effects his union with you,
 “ and Castanos brings together the
 “ whole of Arragon, Catalonia,
 “ Reding's division, &c. so as to
 “ form a force superior to oppo-
 “ nents, who are increasing daily,
 “ I cannot flatter myself with any
 “ serious hope of a good result.”

Other accounts were received of
 the defeat of General Blake's army,
 which softened the misfortune.
 But letters were received from co-
 lonel Graham, who was stationed
 with the central army, and who
 gave a sad detail of cabals and di-
 visions between the generals, with
 the injudicious interferences of the
 junta.

But neither reason nor the ex-
 perience of all ages, nor their own
 misfortunes, could prevail upon the
 junta to appoint a commander in
 chief. Sir John Moore's ideas are
 best explained by himself.

From Sir John Moore to Mr. Frere.

Salamanca, 19th Nov. 1808.

SIR,

“ A courier from Madrid brought
 “ me this morning letters from
 “ Mr. Stuart and Lord William
 “ Bentinck, of the 17th: the for-
 “ mer inclosed an order from the
 “ supreme junta of Ciudad Rodri-
 “ go, to place 20,000 dollars at my
 “ disposition, to be repaid hereaf-
 “ ter. The junta of this town are
 “ endeavouring to get money for
 “ us. Nothing can exceed the at-
 “ tention of the Marquis Cinalbo,
 “ the president; the clergy, with
 “ Dr. Curtis at their head, exert
 “ themselves; and even a convent
 “ of

“ of nuns have promised five thou-
“ sand pounds;—all this shews
“ great good will. The funds, how-
“ ever, which it can raise, are
“ small and very inadequate to our
“ wants. I trust that you will be
“ able to supply us more amply
“ from Madrid, until those from
“ England arrive. A king’s mes-
“ senger brought me, on the night
“ of the 17th, a letter from Lord
“ Castlereagh of the 2d, in which
“ he informs me, that two mil-
“ lions of dollars are upon their pas-
“ sage to Corunna: but his lord-
“ ship adds, that the difficulty of
“ procuring silver is such, in Eng-
“ land, that I must not look for a
“ further supply for some months:
“ and he impresses the necessity of
“ taking every means of obtaining
“ money upon the spot. The ex-
“ pected arrival of the above sum
“ from England, must not, there-
“ fore, lessen your endeavours to
“ get what you can for us at Ma-
“ drid.

“ The French, who entered Val-
“ ladolid upon the afternoon of the
“ 15th, left it the following morn-
“ ing; they were a thousand ca-
“ valry and two pieces of cannon:
“ they returned to Placentia, and
“ have not since advanced from
“ it. I have written to Sir David
“ Baird to advance a part of his
“ corps to Benavente, and to close
“ up the rest to Astorga: when
“ this is done, he will forward that
“ from Zamora, and follow with
“ the rest; but as the propriety of
“ these movements depends upon
“ those of the enemy, the execu-
“ tion of them is left entirely to
“ Sir David’s discretion, who must
“ be guided by the information he
“ receives:—his rear will not reach
“ Astorga before the 4th of De-
“ cember.

“ I heard of General Blake’s de-

“ feat and retreat to Reynosa; but
“ I knew no particulars, until I re-
“ ceived this morning Mr. Stuart’s
“ letter. General Leith, who is
“ employed with that army to cor-
“ respond, has never written a line
“ to me since I was in command.
“ I want general officers:—I have,
“ therefore, written to him to leave
“ any of the officers with him,
“ to carry on the correspondence,
“ and to join Sir David Baird at
“ Astorga.

“ The scenes which Colonel
“ Graham describes, in his letters,
“ as passing at the head-quarters of
“ the central army, are deplora-
“ ble. The imbecility of the Spa-
“ nish government exceeds belief.
“ The good-will of the inhabitants,
“ whatever it may be, is of little use,
“ whilst there exists no ability to
“ bring it into action.

“ I am in communication with
“ no one Spanish army; nor am I
“ acquainted with the intentions of
“ the Spanish government, or of any
“ of its generals. Castanos, with
“ whom I was put in correspond-
“ ence, is deprived of his com-
“ mand at the moment I might
“ have expected to hear from him;
“ and La Romana, with whom I
“ suppose I am now to correspond
“ (for it has not been officially
“ communicated to me), is absent
“ —God knows where. In the
“ mean time the French are within
“ four marches of me, whilst my
“ army is only assembling; in what
“ numbers they are, I cannot learn.
“ No channels of intelligence have
“ been opened to me; and I have
“ not been long enough in the
“ country to procure them myself.
“ I state these particulars to you.
“ I wish it were in my power to go
“ myself to Aranjuez, or Madrid,
“ to represent them; for really if
“ things are to continue in this
“ state.

“state, the ruin of the Spanish
“cause, and the defeat of their ar-
“mies, is inevitable; and it will
“become my duty to consider
“alone the safety of the British
“army, and to take steps to with-
“draw it from a situation, where,
“without the possibility of doing
“good, it is exposed to certain de-
“feat.

“I shall detain the king’s mes-
“senger until I hear from you,
“lest you should wish to send by
“him any dispatches to England.
“I shall beg of Lord William Ben-
“tinck to join the army, where, I
“think, his services will now be most
“useful.

“I have the honour to be, &c.

“JOHN MOORE.”

In this letter Sir John Moore complains of not having heard from General Leith; which was owing probably to the dilatoriness of the messenger, who at last reached Salamanca with the following tidings:

From General Leith to Sir John Moore.

“*Renedo Valley of Cuque-
“ringa, Province of Las Mon-
“tanos de Santander, 15th Nov.
“1808.*

“SIR,

“I regret to inform you that
“the army of General Blake, in
“which was lately incorporated the
“infantry of the Marquis de la
“Romana’s division, has been de-
“feated in several attacks since the
“5th instant, and is entirely dis-
“persed; I have not time to en-
“ter into detail of this unfortunate
“reverse, carrying with it such se-
“rious consequences, for fear of
“delaying the intimation of that
“which is so essential to make
“known in general terms to the

“commander of the British army
“advancing from Portugal to Ga-
“licia. The Estremaduran army
“has also experienced a reverse at
“Burgos. In short, the British
“army has nothing to depend
“upon in Las Montanos de San-
“tander. In Asturias there are
“but a few battalions, totally un-
“disciplined; and by the last ac-
“counts, the French occupy from
“Reynosa to Burgos. Except what
“remains of the Estremaduran
“army (of the position of which I
“am ignorant), and the British
“army, there is nothing to pre-
“vent the enemy from advancing
“towards Leon and Valladolid
“that I know of. I very much
“suspect that he will avail him-
“self of this movement, to attack
“in detail the army of Palafox and
“Castanos, united *nominally*; and
“all of which are placed under the
“command of the Marquis de la
“Romana. The army has suffered
“principally from famine; and I
“do not think that it is possible to
“re-unite those who are flying in
“all directions, nearer than Astor-
“ga and Oviedo. It does not ap-
“pear that there has been any
“want of spirit in the men; and
“in many instances, especially of
“the divisions of the north, distin-
“guished conduct. Some of the
“new officers have not behaved so
“well. Captain Pasley, royal en-
“gineers, who was sent to head-
“quarters to obtain information,
“and to communicate with the
“British army, I hope may have
“given early intelligence of the
“state of things. Capt. Lefebren,
“R. E. is the bearer of this letter,
“and will be able to give such
“information as may be required.
“I regret to state that Captain
“Birch, R. E. was wounded, but
“I hope he is doing well: I caused
“him

him to be embarked on board the Cossack frigate, at Santander, from whence I saw seventeen sail of transports, with warlike stores and provisions, when there appeared no chance of this province remaining covered from the enemy, who, no doubt, will occupy a point so useful to the Spaniards, and eventually to the British. Santander was in the power of the enemy, after possessing the roads of Escudo and Reynosa. The accounts of their having entered that town are not yet received, however. The different attacks have been at Zorosa (between Durango and Bilbao), Valmaseda, Arantia; and the total deroute, after a defeat at Espinosa de las Montanax.—About 7000 re-assembled at Reynosa on the 13th instant, but without any order; from thence they retreated after dark, and have arrived in this valley, as a half-starved and straggling mob, without officers, and all mixed in utter confusion. Never has there been so injudicious and ruinous a system begun and persisted in, as that which has led to the serious disasters of the present moment. The Marquis de la Romana, who is here, is quite of that opinion; and if the army on the other side, and near the Ebro, has not, or shall not have suffered before he can take this direction, I hope affairs may resume a more favourable aspect. I had prepared copies of reports on the different affairs, addressed by different officers to Lord Castlereagh: but, unfortunately, all my papers are on board the Cossack man of war. Mr. Amiotte, the deputy commissary general, has been in such bad health since his arrival, that it was difficult

“ enough to get the stores, &c.
“ embarked. I apprehend the conveyance, chiefly consisting of warlike stores, for the Marquis of Romana’s division, and arms and provisions, under my orders, for the aid of the armies of Spain, has gone to Corunna; as they could not at this season keep the sea, and there is no good port nearer than the last mentioned, from whence the roads towards Leon are not so good. I should hope soon to get near the British army. Under the present circumstances, I feel an awkwardness at leaving the Marquis de la Romana, with whom I have received particular instructions to communicate on any point still unsettled. I hope, however, he will soon be able to disengage himself from this part of the army (if such it can be called); and he may probably be obliged to go near the British army before he can communicate with the rest of his own troops.

“ I have the honour to be, &c.

“ JAMES LEITH,
“ M. General.

“ I inclose a rough idea of the situation of this valley, relatively to the great route from Reynosa to Santander.”

Nothing certainly could be worse judged, than the orders sent by the junta to General Blake to fight the French army alone, instead of directing him to fall back, and unite with General Baird at Astorga; for this Spanish army was in no condition to contend with regular troops. There were, it is true, between eight and nine thousand regular soldiers, who had escaped from Denmark with the Marquis of Romana, and who fought well; but they were overpowered by superior

rior numbers. The rest of this army consisted of unfortunate peasants, who had suffered with constancy, for four months, privations which would have annihilated a British army.

They had endured excessive fatigue, were without shoes, almost without clothes, exposed to the cold on snowy mountains, obliged frequently to depend for subsistence on such animals as they caught by accident; on meat without salt—a food totally repugnant to the habits of Spaniards. They passed many days without bread. Their condition was so wretched,

that it is not to be wondered at that they were easily dispersed, and had no inclination to rally.

Some of the fugitives even passed Salamanca.

The Marquis Romana did not consider it prudent to remain at Reynosa; he retired to Leon, to re-assemble as many as he could collect.

It was now in the choice of Buonaparte, either to turn his arms against Castanos, who was posted in Arragon, or to march against the British, prevent their junction, and compel them to retire to Portugal and to their ships.

BATTLE of CORUNNA, and DEATH of SIR JOHN MOORE.

[From the same.]

“**T**HE British army thus arrived at Corunna, entire and unbroken; and, in a military point of view, the operation was successful and splendid. Nearly seventy thousand Frenchmen, led by Buonaparte, with a great superiority of cavalry, had endeavoured in vain to surround or to rout twenty-six thousand British. Two hundred and fifty miles of the country had been traversed; mountains, defiles, and rivers had been crossed, in daily contact with their enemy. Though often engaged, even their rear-guard was never beaten, nor thrown into confusion: but it was victorious in every encounter.

Much baggage undoubtedly was lost, and some three-pounders were abandoned; but nothing was taken by force. What was left, was owing to the death of waggon-horses and mules, and not to their escort ever being defeated. The courage and menacing attitude maintained by the cavalry and reserve were

sufficient always to repel and overawe the advanced guard of the enemy; and at Lugo, battle was offered by this handful of British, to three divisions of French, commanded by their marshals. This challenge was declined; and the impression it made, enabled the British to terminate their march almost undisturbed.

In fine, neither Napoleon nor the Duke of Dalmatia won a piece of artillery, a standard, or a single military trophy, from the British army.

The greatest danger was still to be incurred: the position at Corunna was found to be extremely bad, the transports were not arrived, and the enemy were appearing on the heights. Some experienced general officers, of excellent judgment and distinguished valour, were so impressed with the melancholy aspect of affairs, as to consider the state of the army almost desperate. They thought it their duty to re-

present

present to the commander of the forces the little probability there was of being able to resist the attacks of an enemy cannonading and pouring upon them from the hills, while they were waiting for shipping. And even should the transports arrive, to embark in the face of a superior enemy, could not be accomplished without an enormous loss. From these considerations they counselled Sir John Moore to send to the Duke of Dalmeida, and propose to enter into terms with him, to permit the British army to embark unmolested.

Sir John Moore, without a moment's hesitation, rejected this advice.

It has excited a natural surprize, why the British army did not retire upon Ferrol, and endeavour to save, at least, the Spanish fleet from falling into the hands of the French? Unfortunately, there was not sufficient mutual cordiality between the two nations to admit of such a measure. It was well known that the Spaniards would not admit the British within the gates of Ferrol, nor into any other naval arsenal. This put it out of the question. But had the Spaniards been better disposed, the harbour of Ferrol is so winding, and commanded by such high grounds, that the transports could never have got out.

The French were seen next morning (January 12) moving in force on the opposite side of the river Mero. They took up a position near the village Perillo on the left flank, and occupied the houses along the river; while Sir John was incessantly occupied in preparing for the defence of his post, and making every arrangement for the embarkation of the troops. The generals and every officer of the army, were now in

full exertion to restore discipline and regularity to the troops, who were receiving such refreshments as could be procured in that place, and some repose from their toils.

On the 13th of January, Sir David Baird marched out of Corunna with his division, to occupy the position on the swelling grounds, and to remain out all night.

Sir John now completed his examination of every plot of ground in the neighbourhood.

Had the army consisted of double its force, by occupying the range of hills situated about four miles from Corunna, they could have defended themselves against very superior numbers. But this position was found much too extensive; for the right and left flanks must have been exposed to be turned; and the enemy could have penetrated to Corunna, especially by the right flank. The possession of these high hills was therefore obliged to be given up to the enemy; and the British were under the necessity of occupying a second range of much inferior heights. Disadvantageous as this position was, it was preferable to leaving it also to the enemy, and contracting the posts close round the town. For, had that been done, the enemy would have approached so near the shore, that every movement would have been seen, and the embarkation would have been rendered quite impossible.

Sir John Moore therefore determined, that one division under General Hope should occupy a hill on the left, which commanded the road to Betanzos, but the height of which decreased gradually towards the village of Elvina, taking a curved direction. Sir David Baird's division commenced at this village; and, bending to the right, the

the whole formed nearly a semi-circle. The rifle corps on the right of Sir David Baird formed a chain across a valley, and communicated with General Fraser's division, which was drawn up near the road to Vigo, and about half a mile from Corunna. The reserve under Major-General Paget occupied a village on the Betanzos road, about half a mile in the rear of General Hope.

Sir John Moore had been on horseback from day-break, to make every arrangement for battle. He returned about eleven in the forenoon, exhausted with fatigue, and sent for Brigadier-General Stuart, and desired him to proceed to England, and explain to ministers the situation of the army.

He said, a vessel would convey him, but he was so tired he was incapable of writing, but that General Stuart, being a competent judge of every thing, required no letter.

He then rested, and took some refreshment; and, two hours afterwards, the vessel not being quite ready, nor General Stuart gone, he called for paper, and wrote off his last dispatch to government.

On the 14th of January the enemy commenced a cannonade on the left, near the road to El-Burgo; the British artillery returned this fire with great effect, and at last compelled the enemy to draw off their guns. There was found, on a hill on the outside of the British posts, a magazine of 4000 barrels of gunpowder, which had been brought from England, and was uselessly left in store, while the Spanish armies were without ammunition. The general ordered that as many barrels as possible should be conveyed to Corunna, which, for want of carts and mules, was a small portion, and that the rest should be

blown up. The explosion was tremendous, and shook Corunna like an earthquake.

In the evening the transports from Vigo hove in sight, which gave the troops the agreeable prospect of being again enabled to return to their native shore.

January 15th, the enemy advanced to the height where the magazine had been blown up, and opposite to the position of the British. The rifle corps skirmished with the enemy's light troops on the right.

In the evening Colonel Mackenzie of the 5th, commanding the advanced post on the left, perceived two of the enemy's cannon not far distant. He imagined that by a sudden attack he might surprise them. He accordingly rushed forward gallantly with a part of his regiment; but, in crossing a field, this enterprising officer was shot, and the attack failed.

In forming the disposition for action, Sir John found that from the nature of the ground, much artillery could not be employed. He directed that seven six-pounders and one howitzer should be placed along the line; and four Spanish guns were kept as a reserve, to be advanced to any point where they might be useful. The rest of the artillery were all embarked this day.

When the out-posts became quiet, the general was busily occupied with Colonel Murray, quartermaster general; Lieutenant-Colonel Anderson, of the adjutant-general's department; and the naval officers, in making arrangements for the embarkation; which was fixed for the next evening. But, both on this day and on the 14th, the sick, artillery, dismounted cavalry, and horses, were incessantly embarking.

Sir John Moore had this day the pleasure of receiving another letter from Mr. Frere, communicating the reports he had made to check the advance of the French.

Mr. Frere to Sir John Moore.

“ Seville, Jan. 2d, 1809.

“ SIR,
“ Upon the receipt of your letter of the 23d, informing me of your march upon Carrion, I wrote to the Duke of Infantado, who was at Cuenca with a force superior to that which the French had left in Madrid, urging him, in the most pressing manner, to make a forward movement upon that capital. I left this letter with the junta, by whom it was agreed that corresponding instructions should be sent to the Duke by the minister of war. It was likewise agreed, that similar orders should be forwarded at the same time to the Marquis of Palacios.

“ I have the honour to transmit a copy of them, which has been since communicated to me; and, though I find them by no means so pressing as I could have wished and expected, I have still thought they were of sufficient importance to justify my forwarding them to you.

“ I have the honour to be, with great truth and respect, Sir,

“ Your most obedient

“ humble servant,

“ J. H. FRERE.”

There is no letter of Mr. Frere's deserving of attention; this is distinguished by urbanity in the expression, and energy in the matter.

It is here announced, that he has written to the Duke of Infantado

to urge him to march towards Madrid.

This was unquestionably done with the view of relieving the British army; for as Sir John Moore, by threatening the communications of Madrid, had drawn upon himself the whole French force; so Mr. Frere, by writing to the Duke of Infantado to threaten Madrid itself, might hope to recall part of that force from the British army.

But there was a material difference between the activity of Mr. Frere and Buonaparte, in their proceedings. For Buonaparte was informed of the advance of the British on the 16th of December; on the 18th, his troops were in motion, and on the 2d of January he had reached Astorga, with about 65,000 men; having marched 300 miles to surround the British.

Mr. Frere, on the other hand, got the same intelligence something sooner; and on the 2d of January, when Buonaparte had reached his destination, he wrote a letter to the Spanish general with a view to stop him. Mr. Frere's letter had certainly little influence in checking the emperor; but it might persuade the secretary of state that he had done his utmost.

On the morning of the 16th of January, the French posted on the hills, were apparently quiet; no firing was heard; and the preparations for embarking the army being now completed, the general resolved to accomplish it that night.

Orders were given that the transports should receive on board the troops of every corps, as fast as the boats came alongside. It was intended to sail to Vigo, and there shift the troops into their proper ships.

This last order was then issued out.

“ GENERAL

" GENERAL ORDERS.

*" Head-quarters, Corunna,
16th Jan. 1809.*

" The commander of the forces
" directs that commanding officers
" of regiments will, as soon as pos-
" sible after they embark, make
" themselves acquainted with the
" names of the ships in which the
" men of their regiments are em-
" barked, both sick and conva-
" cent: and that they will make
" out the most correct states of their
" respective corps: that they will
" state the number of sick present,
" also those left at different places:
" and mention at the back of the re-
" turn where the men returned on
" command are employed."

About noon the general sent for Colonel Anderson, to communicate his final instructions respecting the embarkation. He directed that he must continue to send sick men, horses, and baggage, aboard the ships as quickly as possible; but that he wished all the boats to be disengaged at four in the afternoon; for he intended, if the French did not move, to begin embarking the reserve at that hour: and that he would go out himself, as soon as it was dark, to send in the troops by brigades, in the order he wished them to embark. He continued transacting business until a little after one o'clock, when his horse was brought. He then took leave of Colonel Anderson, saying, "Remember I depend upon your paying particular attention to every thing that concerns the embarkation: and let there be as little confusion as possible."

He mounted his horse in good spirits, and set off to visit the outposts and to explain his design to the general officers.

He had not proceeded far on the road towards the position of the army, when he received a report from General Hope, "that the enemy's line were getting under arms:" which was confirmed by a deserter who came in at that moment. Sir John expressed the highest satisfaction at this intelligence; and only regretted that there would not be day-light enough to profit sufficiently from the advantages he anticipated as certain.

He struck spurs into his horse, and flew to the field. The advanced picquets were already beginning to fire at the enemy's light troops, who were pouring rapidly down the hill on the right wing of the British.

The army was drawn up in the order of battle he had planned three days before, and was filled with ardour. The general surveyed them with pleasure; and examined carefully the movements of the French columns. In a few minutes he dispatched almost all his staff officers with orders to the generals at the different points.

General Fraser, whose brigade was in the rear, was commanded to move up, and take a disposition on the right; and General Paget was ordered to advance with the reserve, to support Lord William Bentinck.

The enemy now commenced a destructive cannonade from eleven heavy guns, advantageously planted on the hills.

Four strong columns of French were seen moving from their position. One advanced from a wood, the other skirted its edge; and both were directed towards the right wing, which was the weakest point.

A third column approached the centre;

entre; and the fourth was advancing slowly upon the left along the road from El-Burgo. Besides these, there was a fifth corps which remained half way down the hill, towards the left.

It was the opinion of Sir John Moore, that the presence of the chief in command near to the point where the great struggle occurs, is often most useful. He probably thought it peculiarly requisite to follow this rule here, as the position of his right wing was bad; and if the troops on that point gave way, the ruin of the army was inevitable.

Lord William Bentinck's brigade, consisting of three incomparable regiments, the 4th, the 42d, and 50th, maintained this dangerous post.—The guards were in their rear; and, to prevent the right being turned, Captain Napier was dispatched to desire Captain Paget to bring up the reserve to the right of Lord William Bentinck.

Sir David Baird leading on his division, had his arm shattered with grape shot; and was forced to leave the field.

The French artillery plunged from the heights, and the two hostile lines of infantry mutually advanced, beneath a shower of balls.

They were still separated from each other by the stone walls and edges, which intersected the ground: but as they closed, it was perceived that the French line extended beyond the right flank of the British; and a body of the enemy were observed moving up the valley to turn it. An order was instantly given, and the half of the 50th regiment, which formed this flank, fell back, refusing their right, and making an obtuse angle with the other half. In this position they commenced a heavy flanking

fire; and the general watching the manœuvre, called out to them, "That was exactly what I wanted to be done."

He then rode up to the 50th regiment, commanded by Majors Napier and Stanhope; who got over an inclosure in their front, and charged most gallantly. The general, ever an admirer of valour, exclaimed, "Well done the fiftieth! well done my majors!" They drove the enemy out of the village of Elvina with great slaughter. In this conflict, Major Napier advancing too far, was wounded in several places, and taken prisoner; and Major Stanhope unfortunately received a mortal wound.

Sir John Moore proceeded to the 42d, addressed them in these words, "Highlanders, remember Egypt!" They rushed on, driving the French before them, till they were stopped by a wall. Sir John accompanied them in this charge, and told the soldiers that he was "well pleased with their conduct."

He sent Captain Hardinge to order up a battalion of guards to the left flank of the highlanders; upon which the officer commanding the light company, conceived that, as their ammunition was nearly expended, they were to be relieved by the guards, and began to fall back; but Sir John, discovering the mistake, said to them, "My brave 42d, join your comrades, ammunition is coming, and you have your bayonets." They instantly obeyed, and all moved forward.

Captain Hardinge now returned, to report that the guards were advancing. While he was speaking, and pointing out the situation of the battalion, a hot fire was kept up, and the enemy's artillery played incessantly on the spot. Sir John Moore was too conspicuous. A
cannon-

cannon-ball struck his left shoulder, and beat him to the ground.

He raised himself, and sat up with an unaltered countenance, looking intently at the highlanders, who were warmly engaged. Captain Hardinge threw himself from his horse, and took him by the hand; then, observing his anxiety, he told him the 42d were advancing; upon which his countenance immediately brightened.

His friend Colonel Graham now dismounted to assist him; and, from the composure of his features, entertained hopes that he was not even wounded; but, observing the horrid laceration and effusion of blood, he rode off for surgeons.

The general was carried from the field on a blanket, by a serjeant of the 42d, and some soldiers. On the way he ordered Captain Hardinge to report his wound to General Hope, who assumed the command.

Many of the soldiers knew that their two chiefs were carried off, yet they continued the fight undaunted.

General Paget, conformably to his orders, hastened to the right with the reserve. Colonel Beckwith dashed on with the rifle corps, repelling the enemy, and advancing on their flank. They penetrated so far, as nearly to carry one of their cannon; but were at length forced to retire, before a much superior corps, who were moving up the valley. General Paget attacked this corps with the 52d, and some more of the reserve, and quickly repelled it. He pressed on to a great distance, dispersing every thing in his front; till the enemy perceiving their left wing quite exposed, drew it entirely back.

The French then advanced upon

the centre, where Generals Manners and Leith successfully resisted their onset. The ground there being more elevated, and favourable for artillery, the guns were of great utility. An effort was likewise made on the left, which was very unavailing; for the position on that side was strong. But a corps of French took possession of a village on the road to Betanzos from which they continued to fire. On which Lieutenant-colonel Nicholls boldly attacked the village with some companies of the 14th, and beat out the enemy with loss.

Light now began to fail, and the French had fallen back on every point; yet the roaring of cannon, and report of musquetry, continued till dark.

The victory was complete, and gained under many disadvantages. The British had been much reduced by the multitude of sick, by the loss of stragglers, and by those employed in necessary duties; and General Craufurd's detachment was now at Vigo; so that not quite 15,000 men were brought into the field. The French also were greatly diminished by the length of the march, the severity of the weather, and their losses in the various defeats they had previously sustained; yet, according to the report of the prisoners, their three divisions amounted to full 20,000 men, and consisted, in part, of the same regiments which had capitulated in Portugal. Besides this great superiority of numbers, their position was far more favourable, and their cannon was of much heavier metal; which being planted on the hills, fired down on the British with great advantage. Yet by the daring courage of the troops, by the skilful disposition of the army, and by

by the manœuvres during the action, the French were entirely discomfited.

The loss of the British in killed and wounded, was between seven and eight hundred men; and General Hope conjectured that the enemy had lost about double that number; but Major Napier, when prisoner, learnt from the best-informed Spaniards, that the loss of the French was about two thousand men. This was owing to the quick firing and steady aim of the British troops; the French veteran officers declaring that they had never been in so hot a fire in their lives. Indeed they were often lavish in their praises of the British in action; but observed, that they were much inferior in marching to their own more practised soldiers, and straggled from their corps to a degree which never occurs in a French army. These defects, together with their love of wine, occasioned a most serious loss of men. But, to mitigate this censure, it ought to be mentioned, that in the midst of their excesses, no such enormities were committed, as other armies are reproached with. The British soldiers were intemperate, and often mischievous, but never cruel.

The darkness of the night made it impossible to pursue the enemy; and General Hope, weighing the circumstances under which the British army was placed, and the reinforcements which were at hand, and would soon reach the French, considered that it would be impossible to retain his position long. A succession of attacks from fresh troops must ultimately overwhelm the British. He, therefore, judged that the only prudent step that could be taken, was to proceed to embark the army.

At ten o'clock at night he ordered the troops, by brigades, to move from the field, and march to Corunna. Strong picquets were left to guard the ground, and to give notice if the enemy approached.

Major-General Beresford commanded the rear-guard, of about 2000 men, to cover the embarkation. He occupied the lines in front of the town. And Major-General Hill was stationed with a corps of reserve, on a promontory behind the town.

The boats were all in readiness, and the previous measures had been so well concerted, that nearly the whole army were embarked during the night.

The picquets were withdrawn before day-light, and immediately carried on board the ships also; so that nothing remained ashore except the rear-guard.

The French had no disposition to renew the engagement; but, when the morning rose, and they saw that the British were gone, they pushed on their light troops to the heights of St. Lucia.

In the forenoon, (January 17th) they got up some cannon to a rising ground near the harbour, and fired at the transports. Several of the masters were so much frightened, that they cut their cables, and four of the ships ran aground. The troops of these ships were put on board others, and the stranded vessels were burnt. The rest of the fleet quitted the harbour.

At two o'clock, General Hill's brigade embarked under the citadel; and during that night, and the following morning, General Beresford sent off all the sick and wounded, whose condition admitted of their being removed; and, lastly, the rear-guard got into the boats, without the slightest effort being made

made by the enemy to interrupt it.

The whole of this difficult operation was so well conducted as to reflect much credit upon the superintending officers, both of the navy and army.

As many will receive a melancholy gratification from reading the particulars of the last moments of the life of Sir John Moore, such incidents as are authentic shall be communicated.

The following letter from Captain Hardinge describes his fall :

"The circumstances which took place immediately after the fatal blow, which deprived the army of its gallant commander, Sir John Moore, are of too interesting a nature not to be made public, for the admiration of his countrymen. But I trust that the instances of fortitude and heroism of which I was a witness, may also have another effect, that of affording some consolation to his relatives and friends.

"With this feeling I have great satisfaction in committing to paper, according to your desire, the following relation.

"I had been ordered by the commander-in-chief to desire a battalion of the guards to advance ; which battalion was at one time intended to have dislodged a corps of the enemy from a large house and garden on the opposite side of the valley ; and I was pointing out to the general the situation of the battalion, and our horses were touching, at the very moment that a cannon-shot from the enemy's battery carried away his left shoulder and part of the collar-bone, leaving the arm hanging by the flesh.

"The violence of the stroke

"threw him off his horse, on his back. Not a muscle of his face altered, nor did a sigh betray the least sensation of pain.

"I dismounted, and, taking his hand, he pressed mine forcibly, casting his eyes very anxiously towards the 42d regiment, which was hotly engaged ; and his countenance expressed satisfaction when I informed him that the regiment was advancing.

"Assisted by a soldier of the 42d, he was removed a few yards behind the shelter of a wall.

"Colonel Graham Balgowan and Captain Woodford about this time came up ; and, perceiving the state of Sir John's wound, instantly rode off for a surgeon.

"The blood flowed fast ; but the attempt to stop it with my sash was useless, from the size of the wound.

"Sir John assented to being removed in a blanket to the rear. In raising him for that purpose, his sword, hanging on the wounded side, touched his arm, and became entangled between his legs. I perceived the inconvenience, and was in the act of unbuckling it from his waist, when he said, in his usual tone and manner, and in a very distinct voice, *'It is well as it is. I had rather it should go out of the field with me.'*

"Here I feel that it would be improper for my pen to venture to express the admiration with which I am penetrated in thus faithfully recording this instance of the invincible fortitude, and military delicacy of this great man.

"He was borne by six soldiers of the 42d and guards, my sash supporting him in an easy posture.

"Observing

“ Observing the resolution and composure of his features, I caught at the hope that I might be mistaken in my fears of the wound being mortal; and remarked, that I trusted when the surgeons dressed the wound, that he would be spared to us, and recover. He then turned his head round, and, looking steadfastly at the wound for a few seconds, said, ‘ No, Hardinge, I feel that to be impossible.’ ”

“ I wished to accompany him to the rear, when he said, ‘ You need not go with me. Report to General Hope that I am wounded, and carried to the rear.’ ”

“ A serjeant of the 42d, and two spare files, in case of accident, were ordered to conduct their brave general to Corunna; and I hastened to report to General Hope. “ I have, &c.

“ H. HARDINGE.”

The tidings of this disaster were brought to Sir David Baird when the surgeons were dressing his shattered arm. He instantly commanded them to desist, and run to attend on Sir John Moore. When they arrived, and offered their assistance, he said to them, “ You can be of no service to me; go to the soldiers, to whom you may be useful.”

As the soldiers were carrying him slowly along, he made them turn him round frequently, to view the field of battle, and to listen to the firing; and was well pleased when the sound grew fainter.

A spring waggon, bearing Colonel Wynch, wounded from the battle, came up. The Colonel asked, “ who was in the blanket?” and being told it was Sir John Moore, he wished him to be placed in the

waggon. The General asked one of the Highlanders, whether he thought the waggon or the blanket best; who answered that the blanket would not shake him so much, as he and the other soldiers would keep the step, and carry him easy. Sir John said, “ I think so too.”— So they proceeded with him to his lodgings in Corunna, the soldiers shedding tears as they went.

In carrying him through the passage of the house, he saw his faithful servant François, who was stunned at the spectacle. Sir John said to him, smiling, “ My friend, this is “ nothing.”

Colonel Anderson, for one-and-twenty years the friend and companion in arms of Sir John Moore, wrote, the morning following, this account, while the circumstances were fresh in his memory:

“ I met the General in the evening of the 16th, bringing in a blanket and sashes. He knew me immediately, though it was almost dark, squeezed me by the hand, and said, ‘ Anderson, don’t leave me.’ ”

“ He spoke to the surgeons on their examining his wound, but was in such pain he could say little.

“ After some time, he seemed very anxious to speak to me, and at intervals got out as follows: “ ‘ Anderson, you know that I have always wished to die this way.’ “ He then asked, ‘ Are the French beaten?’ which he repeated to every one he knew, as they came in. ‘ I hope the people of England will be satisfied!— I hope my country will do me justice!’— ‘ Anderson,—you will see my friends as soon as you can.—Tell them—every thing.—Say to my mother——’ Here his voice quite failed, and he was

“excessively agitated.—‘Hope—
 “Hope—I have much to say to
 “him,—but—cannot get it out.—
 “Are Colonel Graham—and all
 “my aides-de-camp well?’—(a
 “private sign was made by Colo-
 “nel Anderson, not to inform him
 “that Captain Burrard, one of his
 “aides-de-camp, was wounded in
 “the action.)—‘I have made my
 “will, and have remembered my
 “servants.—Colborne has my will—
 “and all my papers.’

“Major Colborne then came in-
 “to the room. He spoke most
 “kindly to him, and then said to
 “me, ‘Anderson, remember you
 “go to —, and tell him it is my
 “request, and that I expect he
 “will give Major Colborne a lieu-
 “tenant-colonelcy.—He has been
 “long with me, and I know him
 “most worthy of it.’ He then
 “asked Major Colborne, ‘if the
 “French were beaten?’—And on
 “being told they were on every
 “point, he said, ‘It’s a great sa-
 “tisfaction for me to know we
 “have beaten the French.—Is Pa-
 “get in the room?’ On my telling
 “him, no; he said, ‘Remember
 “me to him.—It’s General Paget
 “I mean—he’s a fine fellow—
 “I feel myself so strong—I fear
 “I shall be long dying.—It is
 “great uneasiness—it is great pain.
 “Every thing François says is right.
 “—I have the greatest confidence
 “in him.’

“He thanked the surgeons for
 “their trouble. Captains Percy
 “and Stanhope, two of his aides-
 “de-camp, then came into the
 “room. He spoke kindly to both,
 “and asked Percy, ‘if all his aides-
 “de-camp were well?’

“After some interval, he said,
 “‘Stanhope, remember me to your
 “sister.’ He pressed my hand
 “close to his body, and in a

“few minutes, died without a
 “struggle.

“This was every syllable he ut-
 “tered, as far as I can recollect, ex-
 “cept asking occasionally to be
 “placed in an easier posture.

“P. ANDERSON, Lieut. Col.”

From a sentiment of veneration
 that has been felt in every age, the
 corpse of a man who has excited
 admiration cannot be neglected as
 common clay. This impression leads
 mankind sometimes to treat an ina-
 nimate body with peculiar respect;
 and even to bestow upon it unfelt
 honours.

This was now the subject of
 deliberation among the military
 friends of Sir John Moore, who
 had survived the engagement;
 when Colonel Anderson informed
 them, that he had heard the Ge-
 neral repeatedly declare, “that if
 he was killed in battle, he wished
 to be buried where he had fallen!”
 General Hope and Colonel Gra-
 ham immediately acceded to this
 suggestion; and it was determined
 that the body should be interred on
 the rampart of the citadel of Co-
 runna.

At twelve o’clock at night the
 remains of Sir John Moore were
 accordingly carried to the citadel
 by Colonel Graham, Major Col-
 borne, and the aides-de-camp, and
 deposited in Colonel Graham’s
 quarters.

A grave was dug by a party of
 the 9th regiment, the aides-de-
 camp attending by turns. No
 coffin could be procured, and the
 body was never undressed, but
 wrapped up by the officers of his
 staff in a military cloak and blan-
 kets.

Towards eight o’clock in the
 morning some firing was heard.
 It was then resolved to finish the
 interment,

interment, lest a serious attack should be made; on which the officers would be ordered away, and not suffered to pay the last duties to their General.

The officers of his family bore the body to the grave; the funeral service was read by the chaplain, and the corpse was covered with earth."

CHARACTER OF JAMES BARRY, ESQ.

[By the Editor of his Works.]

THE most prominent feature in the character of Mr. Barry, was the fine enthusiasm he possessed after art, and for the acquisition of all knowledge, which referred immediately or remotely to it. If he gazed at and admired the sublime face of creation in homage to the Creator, the eye of devotion was always the painter's eye, which never glanced lightly over those parts which he thought subservient to the pencil. The effulgence of the rising or the glare of the setting sun, with the bold masses of gold-skirted clouds in an evening sky, fired him with ungovernable rapture, but with the keenest ambition too, to steal the phenomena, Prometheus-like, for the purposes of his art: rocks, mountains, and objects of stupendous mass of every kind, roused him in like manner, but only in subserviency to his graphic designs. Few things, even in the subordinate scale of nature, escaped him which had a tendency this way, though his mind naturally ran after the sublime.

But these natural objects belonged only to a province in the domain of his study. His chief business was with *men*, and the affairs of men; with their actions, passions, and characters—here his observations and studies tended also to a point, the perfection of his art, as far as it embraced the high style of historical painting.

We have seen that in the early part of his life, his studies were ar-

dent: in the decline of life they were equally unwearied, and on his death-bed his only complaint was, that his physicians kept him from books, and that he was losing time. Through a long course of years, with this unremitting application, and a powerful memory, his erudition became considerable, and extraordinary for an artist. His knowledge of the dead languages, indeed, was very scanty; of the Greek amounting almost to nothing, of the Latin not furnishing him with more means than just divining the sense of a passage, and that not always without the help of a dictionary—his pretensions went no further: yet with all this defect of classical preparation, no man was better read in and informed of the learning which the ancients have left us than he. Whatever had a reference directly or indirectly to the fine arts, in their writings, he had studied by the help of translations, with a patience and perseverance peculiar to himself; and had treasured it so firmly in his mind, as to make it almost his own. Few men, therefore, could draw more readily for any fact or occurrence in ancient history than himself; and his memory teemed so strongly with the most important ones, as handed down to us by the sacred and profane writers, that his relation of them had the allurements of graphical representation—he painted while he related. But civil history, as well

as poetry, bore but a small share in the sphere of his learning; he was well read, and not many ecclesiastics better, in church history. He was led to this most probably by the many subjects of a religious nature, which painting and sculpture had embellished in Italy: all which subjects he had studied in the writers themselves, to form his judgment of the accuracy of the pencil which had delineated them.

Every man, who is the master of his own education, and whose studies are desultory, like the traveler without a guide over an unknown region, will have to diverge in a variety of directions, and to pass and repass often the same ground; but if his ardour and perseverance enable him to accomplish his journey, he is sure to see more and see better, than the man who goes straight by a beaten track. The studies of Barry were of this nature: it is doubtful if he had ever read through the Bible or the writings of the fathers in any series of study, much less the controversial writers. Yet he had gleaned voluminously from them all, and was not only well acquainted with their lives and characters, but would occasionally set his broad sails into the subjects on which they had treated, and weather the contentious and endless sea, if not to the satisfaction, at least to the admiration of those around him.

There were certain of these writers, whom he had pinned his love and homage on, and whom he always emphatically called his heroes — Pascal, Antony, Arnauld, Nicole, Bossuet, Fenelon; and so completely did his veneration for them carry him away, that he hated their enemies as if they had been his own; and he not only imbibed, as far as he could, their

learning from their writings, but he caught and practised upon their love of virtue, their vindication of the christian religion, their fortitude under persecution, their system of abstinence and self-denial. He compounded himself, if it may be so said, of such men, taking from each that excellence which he had admired in him. Of the two last, the one roused his congenial energy with his grand and powerful style; the other delighted him with his beautiful, mild, and truly classical imagery. With such guides in religion, it was not easy perhaps for a Catholic to go wrong; and in morality, not easy for any man.

The religious subjects of the Italian paintings had conducted him to the study of theology and religion. He was led into mythology by the magic of Grecian sculpture. The tenor of his mind, early impressed with a love and admiration of the beautiful and grand, naturally induced him to value the character of the ancient Greeks; but when the power of the Grecian chisel burst upon his eye in Italy, his enthusiasm as an artist was wrought up to its highest pitch. Grace, beauty, grandeur, force of expression in character, combined with unsullied correctness, never raised superior fervour in any poet's or painter's mind; and on these qualities, as exhibited in the sculpture of the Greeks, was he to fix his lever, by which he was to move and raise the admiration of others in his own productions. He has been heard to remark that he had seen nothing, and felt tamely for art, till that sculpture had caught his correct eye, and fired his poetic mind.

No vestige of this ancient art was indifferent to him; the production

tion and the subject of it became a source of study, and the artist and scholar went hand in hand with equal zeal and a balanced profit.

Thus by degrees did mythological learning ground itself in his mind, so that there was scarcely an author which he had not read; and he carried into these subjects such a judgment and taste as qualified him for an able critic of those matters. Superadded to this, he had a particular aptitude of mind for discovering the meanings, which often lurked under mythological emblems. He was impressed with high notions of the gravity of the ancients, and could not be persuaded that any thing which came from their hands, was without some meaning of an ethical or physical tendency. There was a philosophy, therefore, even in their wildest productions of imagination; and their mythological tales, extravagant and even ridiculous as some of them appear to us, contained some useful lesson or concealed truth, and were not unworthy of the patient investigation of artists and philosophers. Lord Bacon was of this opinion also, as may be seen by the admirable treatise he has left us, *De Sapientia Veterum*.

With respect to this mythology, as it descended from the earliest times, his discrimination in the fine arts enabled him to observe vestiges, in some of them, of an antiquity so remote as to soar above history, or any written record; and as the learned and elegant M. Baillie traced the relics of a perfect astronomy to a remote but unknown people, so would Barry strengthen the same reasoning by a multitude of observations relating to vestiges in the fine arts, which could not be traced to any ancient nation on record, such as the Assyrians, Babylonians, or Egyptians, and there-

fore belonged to some people long anterior to them. He had not the least doubt of the existence of such an ancient unrecorded nation, from, 1st, The fragments of an astronomical science, as proved so ably by Baillie. 2d, From the remnants of a mythology diffused so universally among succeeding ancient nations. And 3d, The scattered remains of an art much superior to what succeeding nations possessed for ages afterwards. As to where this nation had existed, he was decidedly of opinion with Count Carli, and, according to the tradition preserved by Plato, that it was near the coast of Africa, on some island in the Atlantic ocean, and not, as M. Baillie had conjectured, and endeavoured to prove, on the Asiatic continent, between latitude 45 and 50. He agreed with Carli in the proofs of this great, but lost island, from its abundant remains in the scattered isles of the Canaries, Cape Verd, and others; but more than all, in certain traces of similarity of buildings, customs, religious rites, and names, among the Peruvians, Mexicans, even the South-Sea islanders, and the ancient nations of the African and Asiatic continents.

It was with views towards researches of this kind, or to explanations relating to history or mythology, that he honoured the labours of antiquaries, giving them in other respects very little credit for hoarding and collecting, and still less for assuming to themselves the right of deciding dogmatically on matters of *taste*, which so often lay out of their acquirements, and properly belonged to other men, better prepared (as he thought) to decide—the artists. We believe that he took an early dislike to antiquarians, and mere collectors, from the consequence he observed

some of them assumed at the time he studied at Rome, and the mischief he supposed they did to modern art and artists, by dragging the public attention to the crudities they collected, and thereby diverting it from fostering and encouraging modern works of merit. He had many complaints of this nature to make, and some of them perhaps well founded, which are detailed in his letter to the Dilettante, and which it is pleasant to see, have served as a kind of text to the vigorous and spirited, as well as highly poetical work of Mr. Shee, *Rhymes on Art*. But such complaints are neither novel nor uncommon; Michael Angelo was as much annoyed by antiquarian mania as Mr. Barry, and had no way of punishing the injustice of such men, but at the expence of any claims they might have to judgment or taste.

But we repeat again, that Mr. Barry honoured the researches after antiquities, and thought them useful where they tended to explain or illustrate ancient art or science. His strong mind in every thing considered the object and the motive. He could therefore distinguish between the solid labours of a D'Ancarville, and the mercenary restlessness of a Jenkins; between the useful investigator and expounder of antiques, and the vain collector. If he judged of men in this respect, according to their value, so he judged of things, and blamed the attention, time, and praise so often bestowed on objects unworthy of regard: whose only merit was their antiquity; of no value in their own time, of no use in this, the refuse of mean art. But of those choice specimens, which displayed the beginning, progress, and perfection of art, or which threw a light on any facts,

customs, or usages of ancient time; which embellished mythology, illustrated history, or fixed chronology, no man was more an enthusiast, or stamped a value more becoming the objects than himself.

For the use which the study and researches of coins convey, he was a great friend to numismatic learning, and without pretending to much knowledge this way, yet he possessed that acumen of taste and science in the designs which coins display, that his observations were generally novel and valuable. He had a greater respect for collectors of this kind than for any others, finding them more useful and less arrogant or interfering, to depress art of modern time.

From the admiration which he entertained of many of the ancient coins, of the medals of Pisano, Hamerani, and others struck in more modern periods, for boldness of design and vigour of execution, he was naturally led to contrast them with and lament the meagerness of art exhibited in the coins of this country. An application which the Lords of the Council had made to the Royal Academy for improvements in the coinage, fixed his attention more pointedly to the subject; and as the academicians could not agree among themselves on the suggestions they were to offer, nor he with any of them, he drew up a letter to the Earl of Liverpool on this important subject, in which he struck out some bold and useful observations on the improvements of the national coin; recommending a deep relief of figure filling the whole space of the coin, and sunk in a cavo bed. A mode, certainly, of improvement, and with the two-fold utility of effect and preservation. A coinage of copper which soon followed the publication of this letter,

ter, embraced in part Mr. Barry's object, but not to the extent in size or execution of the design, which he wished for. To preserve his claim to these suggested improvements, he was not content with the publication of the above-mentioned letter, but he painted into one of his pictures at the Society of Arts, an imaginary coin or medal of Alfred, and has treated the same subject in a preface to one of the volumes of the Transactions of that Society; where, with really Grecian taste, he recommends typifying the common coin of the three kingdoms with the rose, thistle, and shamrock, intertwined round the border or rim of the coin. It is in the same preface, where he suggests a design for a new medal of that Society, simple and grand, and explanatory at a glance, by the combined heads of Minerva and Mercury, of the purposes of that useful institution. Round the rim in the design which he drew of this medal, he has carried the same wreath, which if executed with the bold relief he intended, would not only be ornamental, but complimentary to the three kingdoms, as well as a preservative of the main design it encircles.

So easy could his mind descend to these smaller branches of art; but his love of the grand tended to the nobler subjects of design. And there is no doubt that, if he had been employed upon those for sculpture or architecture, his ideas in both these branches would have been Michel-angelesque. On the science of architecture he had spent a great deal of study, from a desire he had entertained of bringing a brother forward in this line, but whose early death dissipated his views. He was therefore competent to speak on the best speci-

mens of ancient and modern architecture, in their different styles, and his critiques generally abounded with those masterly strokes of a fertile and bold genius, as to fix always attention, and sometimes admiration.

But whatever his skill in the different branches of the fine arts, or his general learning might be, posterity will be engaged upon him chiefly as a painter; let us therefore examine what rank he is entitled to in this line.

There is an expression of his in one of his letters to Mr. Burke, which will give us a clue to ascertain the principal object he had always in view, and which, if he accomplished, will entitle him to rank as a master in this noblest branch of art. "I find," says he, "Titian is the only modern who fills up an idea of perfection in any one part of the art. There is no example of any thing that goes beyond his colouring, whereas the parts of the art in which Michael Angelo and Raffael excelled, are almost annihilated by the superiority of the antiques." In other words, that there was something wanting in the *beau ideal* of forms, which, whatever the ancient marbles might, the canvas of the moderns did not possess; and which none of the Italian schools, not even the Roman, so celebrated for its nobleness of style, had pushed to its perfection. Is Barry the artist who has supplied this most important desideratum? has he approached the perfection of the Greek antiques in the *beau ideal*? We may go farther, and ask, has he, in no instance, improved on that supposed perfection? Any of these questions answered affirmatively, (and they cannot all be denied) will entitle him to rank as a master;—by this term is meant an artist

artist who has advanced the progress of his art by his skill and invention; who has advanced a step, and that step an important one: and whether the writer may be accused of ignorance and presumption or not, he affirms that neither Michael Angelo nor Raffael, nor the eminent masters who have followed them, have produced for truth, science, beauty, character, and expression, any figures that equal, much less excel, the Angelic Guard in the picture of Elysium; the youth on horseback, and group of the Diagorides, in the Olympic Games; the three figures of Jupiter, Juno, and Mercury, in the picture of Pandora; the Adam and Eve; or for exquisite ideal beauty in the female form, his Venus, in which if he has not rivalled the Venus de Medicis, he has at least avoided what he thought a defect in the ideal beauty of that statue, the visible marks of maternity. This exquisite ideal, which from the Greek statues, he is the first who has transferred on canvas, was the *fort* of Barry, for which his scientific and poetic mind amply qualified him. For the mechanic of colouring, though what he has adopted, seems always appropriate to his subjects, he is not so famous. But it cannot be said that he is defective, unless the tinsel and glare of less accomplished painters should be preferred to it. Of the subjects and style of his compositions, though the facility and playfulness of his pencil was suited to all the beauty, grace, and elegance, which female form ever exhibited on the canvas of Corregio or Parmeggiano, yet he suffered not his mind to be led away by enchantments of this kind: the bent of his genius was after compositions of a grave na-

ture. He delighted not to speak of his Venus, the female dance in his harvest scene, or the sporting nymphs in his picture of the Thames, though the beauty of form, and the grace of action and attitude ravished every other eye; but he took praise on his subjects of the Olympic Games, and the Elysium, because he thought that these subjects, independent of the execution, deserved praise from the solemn and useful lesson they conveyed.

He had impressed himself very early in life with an idea of the dignity and solemnity of a painter's profession. The art of painting, like that of poetry, professes to please and to instruct. Its aim is accomplished when this double object is obtained; but in his opinion the pleasure ought in all cases to be subservient to the instruction: where the contrary prevailed, the art would become a pander to the passions, a meretricious guide into the regions of depraved taste, frivolous and effeminate, like the age, whose corruption it was tending to promote. The artist therefore whose ambition was to overstep his own time, and descend with credit and honour to posterity, to cling to the chief object, moral instruction, without spurning or losing sight altogether of pleasure, which might follow in the distance. This rule Mr. Barry observed with a steadiness and rigour beyond any other artist of ancient or modern time. He may be styled emphatically the Ethical Painter; for whether he sought his subjects from the Pagan or Scriptural history, whether they were the pure inventions of his own fancy, or drawn from recorded facts, in no instance has his pencil traced a line, but with a moral

moral or instructive effect; so grave and guarded is he, that there is no instance in his pictures, where he has permitted himself the slightest levity in action or countenance sufficient to raise a smile, much less of buffoonery, even in his lightest productions, to excite a laugh. In his picture of the Olympic Games, he has levelled a blow at buffoonery and wit in the person of Aristophanes, sufficient to determine in what light he held this species of popular but trivial qualification.

In this respect the man never varied from the painter. Were his moments ever so free and social, he never aimed at wit or broad humour. He might wish to raise admiration by his remarks, but he disdained to excite a laugh; and a conversation which had only merriment for its object, soon disgusted him; because his golden rule was here reversed; and instruction arising from general conversation was sacrificed to mere pleasure. With all this, if he liked his company, he was far from being churlish or morose, but a cheerfulness beamed over him, which soon discovered how susceptible he was of the satisfaction of giving and receiving instruction: And in this exchange he was on the whole a very fair trader, not arrogating more conversation than fell to his share; though it often happened, if the subject was history, religion, or the fine arts, that most of it really fell to him, as he had most to say, and that, with an enthusiasm and warmth which seemed proportioned to the value of the subject, or to the contradiction, sophisms or quibble, that had previously roused him. Nothing was more easy than to make him animated and eloquent on any

subject; where he felt the least interest; and such had been the extensive circle of his studies, that there were few subjects he did not feel some interest in.

The impression which, as has been said, he imbibed early of the seriousness of a painter's charge, grew with his ambition to distinguish himself, and was fostered by years and serious studies. The levities of youth, the fashions and snares of social life had no allurements to win him from his purpose; and not merely what had a vicious tendency in the art, but what had not an useful one, met his aversion or disrelish. No persuasion or prospect of emolument could have induced him (for example) to paint the jollity of a tavern scene, the uproar of a Middlesex election, the eager pleasures of a bear-baiting, or a horse-race; because he looked on these pleasures as vicious in themselves, and unworthy of memorial or record, and thought that the pencil was prostituted which perpetuated them, as giving consequence to a depraved bent of the public mind which ought to be directed to nobler pursuits. Even in the business of portrait painting, though no man approved the motives of love, friendship, and respect, which had preserved to us the resemblances of persons celebrated for birth, beauty, talents, or moral worth, more than he; yet he condemned the general rage after this branch of art, as arising from vanity; and where there was nothing to celebrate in form, feature, intellectual or moral excellence, as worse than useless; because art, in running after individual and vulgar nature, was diverted from its nobler pursuits, and the artist himself levelled to the condition of

a mechanic, who was drudging for subsistence. He lamented the taste of the public which commanded, and the situation of the artists which submitted to such works, and of course strenuously resisted every temptation to embark in them. But the meed of fame and not wealth was his object; in pursuing and obtaining which, he has left a fine memorial of what every artist may do, who has any spark of the *Vis divinatoria* within him, who has application, time, and a determination to excel—and a glorious example of achieving great things with little means, by flinging aside the incumbrances of casual wants, and the vain allurements of society, and devoting himself, like a hero, to the grand objects he had in view.

These objects in a mind so creative, ardent, and richly fraught as Barry's, rose like the Epics of Homer and Milton, into one vast and sublime, yet connected and systematic whole. Illimitable as the subject seemed, his genius brought it within the necessary circle laid down by Aristotle for the epopee, of a beginning, a middle, and an end. This subject, which we state as the most comprehensive ever considered or undertaken by painter or poet, was no less than the complete history of the human mind in its various stages from barbarity to refinement, both with respect to its multiplied relations of man with man, and its more solemn relations of man with God; and in the final retribution awarded to all in a future world.

It is obvious that the former part of this work, to be complete, must have comprehended the whole of ethic and natural science; the other branch would have comprehended the mythology of the Pa-

gan world, and the theology of the Jewish and Christian; and the concluding part, that which he has so ably and learnedly achieved in his picture of Elysium.

In the stanzas of the Vatican sprung this vast conception in the mind of young Barry, and what is singular, in front of the pictures of Raffael, intended by that immortal painter to represent part of the same subjects. We mention this circumstance as a proof of the daring and enthusiastic turn of this young man, of the consciousness of his own powers, and of the keenness of his glance, which discovered the failure and defects of his precursor, and of the determination instantaneously assumed, of breaking a spear with him on his own ground. In most men such a determination would have been presumptuous, and would have ended like the heroic actions conceived over the fumes of wine, or the golden dreams of a selfish and vain fancy. But in Barry, to conceive and to execute admitted of no interval; and at Rome he began his design of Pandora, which was to eclipse Raffael's Marriage of Cupid and Psyche before an assembly of the gods in the little Farnese palace, and to serve as the first in a series of theological science. So far as vigour and justness of character in the delineation of each of the gods upon the pure Grecian models could go, he has succeeded and outstripped Raffael; and he has succeeded in conveying a tale which was to serve as the first of a series, representing the relation the human mind had with the Deity in the Heathen world, and the prevailing belief in the origin of mundane happiness and misery. Pandora was the first of women created—the Heathen Eve; and was endowed by the gods

gods with all attributes necessary for ensuring satisfaction and happiness, with one sole injunction committed to her charge, which by violating she was to entail pain and misery on mankind. There is in the story much to attach the attention of the philosopher and scholar, as to the opinion of the ancients, how death and sin came into the world; nor uninteresting to the divine, as conveying the universality of opinion in ancient times, that the Deity created human existence innocent and pure, with means to insure the duration of its own happiness; but by disobedience and perversity, it entailed misery on itself.

What picture or pictures he designed to follow this, in order more fully to pourtray the progressive errors of the human mind in the Pagan religion, we cannot say; but no doubt his systematic fancy would have completed this part of his subject, in order to open with a sublimer effect on the history of the Mosaic and Christian doctrines.

It is well known, that the purity of his taste had led him to the brightest and deepest fountain of poetic and historic imagery for the delineation of the Mosaic system of religion—that is, to the *Paradise Lost* of Milton. To the genius of Milton he paid such *adoration and homage*, that to rise to the height of his descriptions, he thought would be the fame of his pencil, and the completion of a principal part of the subject he had in view. It was not a little to illustrate on canvas what the poet had conceived, and that in the grand, solemn, and ethical way which such a poet had intended; yet Barry began his Miltonic designs with equal enthusiasm and

effect; intending them but as a part of a great whole, which his own poetic fancy and power of invention was to supply.

The temptation of Adam is probably the only one which exists on canvas; and this he painted at Rome, which is mentioned as a corroborating proof, that at Rome he had formed his general subject. But he has left valuable drawings of the other parts, beginning with the triumph of Michael, and the casting out of the evil angels from heaven; of Satan haranguing them after their fall; of his conflict with Death at the gates of hell; of his escape from the nether world, and arrival at the palace of Chaos and old Night; his arrival in Paradise; the descent of Uriel to inform Gabriel of the escape of an evil spirit; the detection of Satan by Ithuriel; our first parents after their fall; vision of human miseries ensuing on his posterity, pointed out to Adam; the dismissal from Paradise.

In the midst of these horrid scenes of rebellion, disobedience, divine anger, and punishment, which are too much in a continued series of paintings for human feelings to relish; like the great poet whom he was following, Barry knew where to introduce the repose, to bring back the calm desired, and his designs of God the Son in the beneficent act of creating the world; of the angel in the bower conversing with Adam; of Adam and Eve in their state of innocence and bliss; of the same at their morning orisons; fill the mind with a pleasure in proportion to the agitation it had previously suffered.

It cannot with certainty be said how many, and what other subjects he intended to take from the Para-

Paradise Lost, to exemplify the Mosaic theology; but the designs he left behind him pourtray, as may be seen by the above-mentioned series, the early relation of man with his Creator; the obedience enjoined and broken, and the consequence which was foretold to happen, "of death brought into the world, and all our woe."

Perhaps certain subjects from the Bible, typifying more distinctly the nature of the faith and worship of the Jews, and their intimate connexion with the true God, together with examples of virtues rewarded and of vices punished, might have fallen into his plan; but there is no authority for such an assertion, for he has left no memorial behind him, nor is it remembered his having spoken of such a part of his subject. Perhaps he reserved many details of this kind until he came to the next part of his subject, the doctrines of the revealed religion of Christ; which he has been heard to speak of with that love, enthusiasm, and rapture, that if the subjects could have been finished before age had enfeebled his natural powers, it must have been the most interesting part of the whole, particularly to Christians of the present day, who stand related to God by the holy mysteries of this religion.

It is not to be wondered at that Mr. Barry should contemplate this division of his subject with peculiar ardour, unction, and delight—he, whose faith on the mysteries of the incarnation and miracles of Christ was built on a rock. All who knew him, can testify with what ardour he dwelt on these subjects, and how eloquently and manfully he would withstand every encroachment made by levity or

infidelity on the doctrines of revelation: *Philosophers* of the French school, deists, and sceptics of every kind, met with no quarter from him here. And as he was so well convinced of the futility of the pagan philosophy, as having offered no permanent motives or rules for moral conduct, and of the abominations of the French philosophy, as offering no motives but what have led to vicious; that his heart and mind gave into the Christian religion with redoubled faith and ardour. And there is no doubt but this part and continuation of his subject would have carried with it all the interest and importance which belong to it, or which could have been stamped by genius, penetrated, enriched, and animated by knowledge and faith. It is a loss to the arts, perhaps to mankind, that he never lived to finish this subject. It could be seen how vehemently desirous he was of putting a finish to his main design, by the frequent and loud exclamation, "O God! how I long to have a place where I can be at my work!" Of this work it is painful to announce, that only detached parts remained, *Designs*—but such as they were, they were finished in his usual great style of drawing, and consisted of the Annunciation; of the Nativity, after the manner of the *Notte* of Corregio; of the Baptism of Christ in the Jordan, an admirable drawing designed with simplicity, but grandly impressive; Pilate presenting Christ to the Jews, and exculpating himself from any guilt in his blood; Judas casting down the thirty pieces of silver, admirably expressive of remorse and self-condemnation, and of the haughty indifference and insulting satisfaction of the high priests and elders.

To what extent did he mean to pursue the subject of the Christian revelation? Did he intend painting the characteristic and chief *traits* in the life of our Saviour; to introduce the Ordination of the Sacraments; to exemplify and contrast that proud, but unsound principle of the Stoic school, to *bear and forbear*, with the natural, graceful, unassuming, and chief feature of the Christian, made up of meekness of heart and a forgiving disposition? It is impossible to say—he has left no memorial of his ultimate intentions; but from the detached and broken parts, it is probable that this was his intention, with such intermediate links, that the subject would have flowed before the spectator's eye in one continued, instructive, and pleasing stream, and such as the consolatory history of universal redemption might be supposed to represent.

In this ample and sublime manner his wish and attention was to convey the progressive culture of the human mind under the two great divisions of philosophy and theology; and it may be said, without any extravagant admiration of the man, that the school of Athens and Dispute of the Sacrament, convey but a scanty delineation of the two subjects, in comparison with the learned, poetical, and systematic mode intended by Barry.

Raffaël's range of subject is more confined, as he chooses the moment of consummation of human culture, the acme of philosophy and theology. Barry's range is so ample, that it appears almost without limits, as he takes in the progression of these subjects, such as they appear in different periods of time or stages of society. The one oversteps all bounds of proba-

bility, by disregarding the unities of time, place, and action; for example, in the picture of the School of Athens, individuals are brought together who never existed at one and the same period of time; they are assembled at Athens for no defined purpose, and with no circumstance peculiar to Athens, and may be occupied as far as the spectator can determine, like the evil spirits after their fall,

“In vain Wisdom all, and false philosophy,
“Finding no end, in wandering mazes lost.”

Whatever may be the grandeur, variety, and spirit of the figures, the dignity of the heads, the grand style of drapery, or the beauty of colouring, for in these things the inimitable Raffaël is visible, and Barry halts behind him; still the same objections apply in the picture of the Dispute of the Sacrament; the spectator remains to be informed who the actors are, what they are about, and how they came together at one place and time; and when he has had this information, he is not much wiser or more satisfied. In no part of Mr. Barry's work are violations of the unities observable. Fiction no where soars above probability; because where the scenes are on earth, his personages, almost all, are imaginary; or if real personages, he has made choice of such as existed at or nearly the same period of time. There is but one instance to the contrary, which is in his picture of the Thames, where, to honour the memory of Captain Cooke, and to compliment his friend Dr. Burney, he has associated them with Sir Walter Raleigh, Drake, and others, of an earlier period. To profit therefore by the free

free scope of general representation of real personages, he places his scene in Elysium, where probability is not overstepped; where the action is uniform, which is the acquisition and discussion of *reserved* knowledge, though the individuals are variously and dividedly grouped. And the eye is carried over the different parts of this immense picture without fatigue or confusion by the natural pauses and breaks every where interspersed, and at last conducts the imagination to that supposed centre, the throne of Deity, from whence life and immortality are brought to light.

If in the room of the Society of Arts, Mr. Barry has told his story clearly, strongly, and with as many requisites of the epic as painting will admit, though not so amply as his expanded mind intended; since it is certain, if the place and opportunities had allowed, his intention was to have introduced episodical parts, which had reference to other branches of culture in the human mind, such as jurisprudence and legislation, natural philosophy, poetry, &c.—so is it certain, that in the most important of all, as connecting man with his Creator, and as the source of his eternal felicity hereafter, or theology, he would have conducted his subject with due effect. He required only that countenance and encouragement of the public, which genius so laudably pants after and deserves.

But if he lived not to complete his great subject, the delay of which lay not with him so much as with the adverse circumstances under which he laboured, let it not be supposed that he spent his time idly or unprofitably; few men ever calculated the value of their time so rigidly as Mr. Barry: if he

was a miser in any thing, it was in the careful economy of this treasure. It has been noticed how much he was dissatisfied, if these loose moments which mankind are willing to throw into the lap of social intercourse, and to abandon for any chance pleasures they can bring, were not spent profitably; that is, each moment bringing its charge of grave and useful instruction and delivering it up into the common stock for the benefit of the company. If such was his attention to the proper use of his social hours, we may well suppose that those appropriated to himself were not suffered to slip away unemployed; and indeed, after turning one's eyes from his larger works of the pencil, to his lesser labours of the graver, from his canvas to his plates, we may be astonished that so much should have been accomplished by one man, solitary, unassisted, unpatronized, and unprotected; who, whether all his apprehensions were imaginary or real, had certainly enemies enough to qualify an expression he frequently used; that it was extraordinary he could ever accomplish what he had done, when he had so often to defend himself with one hand, while he painted with the other. Yet his spirit and industry carried him through a larger series of etchings or engravings than perhaps ever fell to the share of any man who had not made that branch of art his professed occupation. He has etched or engraved almost all his paintings, and also many of his other designs, which he intended, but had not place or opportunity to throw upon canvas. It is to be wished that he had engraved them all; for such is the strong and masterly style of his art,

art, that it will not be easy to find an artist who can catch his manner and force of expression. This manner of etching or engraving is peculiar to Mr. Barry; it is coarse, but nervous, strong, and energetic. Here, as in every thing else, he disdained to please only; therefore all softness and delicacy of line, all fineness and finish, every thing to flatter the eye without reaching the mind, he flings aside, to fasten with more effect and depth on the main points of his design, and knows that his instrument conveys the tale usefully, if it conveys it strongly; and that adventitious ornament and finish may be a necessary appendage to weakness of subject, but can add nothing to that which is sufficiently strong to support itself. With various degrees of merit and excellence, which it is not the business here to enter minutely into, has he conducted a long series of etchings or engravings; the principal and most important of which are those which refer to his work at the Adelphi. All of these paintings he engraved, undertaking the work under the encouragement of a subscription of ten guineas the set. This series comprized what he called the smallest set; but he engraved the principal groups in the Elysium, and that of the Diogenes in the Olympic Games, in a larger and finer style some years afterwards, introducing certain characters into his Elysium whom he had unjustly, as he thought, omitted in the painting; such as the person of Isabella of Spain, the great princess, by whose magnanimity and patronage, Columbus accomplished his discovery of America; the person of Calvert Baron of Baltimore, the founder of the colony of Maryland, and wise le-

gislator of that code which Penn afterwards adopted for the colony which he established; and perhaps others, which we do not recollect.

The principal subject of his other engravings are—his Pandora, which he has left unfinished.

Job reproved by his friends, dedicated to Mr. Burke.

The conversion of Polemon, dedicated to Mr. Fox. Polemon, an Athenian beau, reeling home from a night's debauch, enters at early dawn the lecture-room of Xenocrates the philosopher, at the moment he is discoursing on the wretchedness of intemperance, and folly of vanity; expecting when he entered a subject for ridicule, the young man's attention becomes suddenly fixed by the seriousness and poignancy of the philosopher's remarks, and the artist seizes him at the moment that he is stealing from his head his garlands, and is in the posture and attitude of a man who felt the shame of his conduct, and the workings of a roused reflection. The heads and figures of the group composing the audience, are finely conceived. This design was undertaken in consequence of some sarcastic remarks made on the levities of the late Mr. Fox, by either Price or Priestly, in a club to which Barry belonged; these men looking on Mr. Fox without hope, while Barry defended him, and produced at the next meeting the above design, 1778.

Jonah, from the painting by Michael Angelo, 1801, dedicated to the late Duke of Bridgewater.

King Lear, from a painting done by Barry, for the Shakspeare Gallery, 1776.

His present majesty delivering the patent to the judges of their office

office for life; and her Majesty and the princesses patronizing education at Windsor, both intended for additional paintings in the great room of the Society at the Adelphi.

Philoctetes in the isle of Lemnos, from a painting he executed at Bologna, in 1770, and presented to the Clementine Academy there, for the honour they had done him of electing him a member: this painting was engraved in 1785, by Rosaspina; but the two prints bear no comparison for energy of expression.

Birth of Venus, 1776.

Head of the late Earl of Chatham, 1778.

Jupiter and Juno, from a painting by him.

Rise of America, with the decline of Europe. An allegorical design he etched at the heat of the American war; when those who espoused the cause of the colonists, suffered their imaginations to run riot on the sunshine that was to bless America, and to lament the eternal gloom that was spreading on this side of the Atlantic; the worst of all Barry's productions, 1776.

In the Miltonic Series, the Archangel Michael triumphing over Satan, the subject he had chosen for a painting in St. Paul's.

Satan risen from the fiery gulph, and hurling defiance at the vault of Heaven.

Battle of Satan and Death, with Sin interfering.

Temptation of Adam.

Adam and Eve after their fall.

Milton dictating to Elwood the quaker.

Having spoken of him for his genius and learning, it may be necessary to trace some lines of him, for his virtues and foibles as a member of society. The basis of his temper was of a cheerful and

good-humoured cast: if he had been bred a mechanic, with employments succeeding to his wishes, there is scarcely a man who would have passed through life more cheerly or unconcernedly; but fate threw him on a profession which, built up itself of ideal charms, generally charms away its votaries by a thousand phantoms of ambitious hope, which are scarcely ever to be realized during life, or if realized, never worth the sacrifice of repose which accompanies the pursuit of them. For one fortunate Rubens, ennobled and enriched by sovereigns, or for one even-tempered Reynolds, who, as Dr. Johnson observed, was the most invulnerable of men, we meet with numbers in the class of painters, whose happiness in pursuit of fame has been broken up, and whose fame even came too late to be enjoyed. The more eminent their genius, the less happy their condition; as if Providence, in whose hands are genius and happiness, proffered the one to withhold the other.

Barry inherited the gift with the hard conditions. His life had been, with respect to natural and common enjoyments, a life of privation; and with regard to the expectations he had formed, a life of disappointment. These circumstances soured a naturally good temper, in spite of religion and philosophy, of which he possessed no mean share. Add to this (as he thought) a host of men, who discovered an enmity to him, who were glad to obstruct his views, and depreciate his merits, who felt elevated in proportion as he was depressed. It must not be denied but much of this enmity Barry drew on himself. A man can never have a contemptuous opinion of

of others, with whom he is often obliged to act in life, that is not ultimately pernicious to him; and it is to be feared that Mr. Barry's opinion of contemporary artists was not so liberal, or conciliating, or becoming his own eminent place among them, as was to be wished. As he was never a hypocrite to conceal his sentiments, their resentment became a matter of course; and except two or three friends, whom he retained among them, the general class of these gentlemen was certainly hostile to him. The opposition he met with in the Royal Academy, to several useful schemes which he proposed for the advantages of the Academy, as a seminary for young painters, tended to foster and augment the ill-will on both sides. This is not a place for the history of their disputes, which are detailed in several parts of his writings; but as they tended to inflame an irritable temper, (for of all men Barry belonged to the *genus irritabile vatum*) and ultimately by his expulsion from that body, to make him drink the cup of bitterness in his last years, it may be frankly asserted, that one of his greatest misfortunes was his having been an Academician. It would have been better for him to have pursued his great designs without this (to him doubtful) honour; and though it would have deprived the world of the lectures, which form the principal object of this volume, yet it would have saved him from drinking of that noxious cup, which was voted, seemingly in defiance, if not in consequence, of many of the same virtues which have endeared the memory of Socrates.

Let him not be traduced, however, by giving the reader the

smallest reason to suppose that the asperity of his temper was constant and habitual: no, it was only occasional, when his mind brooded over the difficulties, the opposition, neglect, and disappointments he had met with through life. And even here it was curious to observe, how ready he was at times to correct his failing, and even to glory in the trials he had suffered, quoting often, if not always profiting by, the best examples of endurance in the Stoics, of meekness under sufferings in our Saviour, of patience in Socrates, of austerity and self-denial in the early fathers, and of that love of poverty and independence, which distinguished the brightest characters in the Roman republic. His mind was treasured with these examples, from which he sought much of his consolation. He adopted a short maxim which he was often wont to repeat, and which consoled him also under the disappointments he had suffered; it was that of Penn, *no cross, no crown*; believing that buffetings, trials, and hardships alone make the man, and the good man; and that every thing was accomplished, when this latter was obtained; the reward being in the satisfaction of an unblemished conscience, and in the expected retribution of a happy immortality: that ease and sensual enjoyments of every kind sapped the probabilities of obtaining this, by wedding the individual to the world, and enticing him to rely on the varnished arts of society, and on pleasures futile, fleeting, and unsubstantial: that pure morality was at such variance with the arts of life, or with the world, that no treaty could exist between them: there was no steering between both without

sacrificing one or the other. He had no opinion of virtues, therefore, that accommodated themselves to the arts of society: nay, the least deviation from a virtue was a homage paid to vice, and was a sin, differing but in degree, from such which mankind consent to reprobate.

He would instance this in a variety of ways, and draw his instances from the lives of men, who otherwise had passed for fair characters, but who suffered themselves to be swayed occasionally by private interest, pique, or some unlawful bias of the heart, at the expense of truth, justice, or probity. There was, it must be owned, a sternness and severity often in his maxims on this head, to which it was impossible for a human individual, not a recluse, to tutor himself. He himself saw, and admitted the difficulties; but his answer always was, that the glory lay in those difficulties, that they were the touch-stone of God, who with infinite wisdom and goodness had placed beside it *conscience*, that monitor, which instructed the savage and philosopher equally as to the rule of right and wrong. That a peasant could not plead ignorance of, nor the most cunning casuist argue away his real feelings on, the slightest deviations from right. That the degree did not alter the difference as to the violation towards God, of whose divine Being we could form no idea, but by his attributes; that God was truth, God was justice, mercy, benevolence, consummate probity, and prudence; that wherever we gave up or deviated from these, we gave up and deviated from Him; that wherever we acted up to these virtues, and loved them, we loved and obeyed Him, and frail human nature was limited in proceeding farther.

Although no man's rule of faith could be more invariable and steady than Mr. Barry's, and to the principal doctrines of the Roman Catholic Religion was riveted, even to a degree which many of his protestant friends justly thought bigoted, yet was he a Catholic after his own way, and at times was very liberal, particularly with respect to points of discipline in that church, resembling the late Dr. Geddes, whom he has been heard very much to applaud for the pains which he had taken to soften down the asperities of their church. It was a favourite opinion of his, which he had imbibed from the writings of Grotius, Bossuet, Dr. Butler, and others, that a general reconciliation might take place between the Catholic and Protestant churches, without touching on any of the fundamental articles of faith, and by only sacrificing on one side or the other certain non-essential and merely disciplinary points, which perhaps tended more to fetter true religion, and keep up animosities, than to any solid good. He was very zealous, and eloquently so upon this subject, arguing, that as states had abandoned the pernicious error of waging war for the sake of religion, so the present time was the most fitted for a general council of learned and candid divines to settle a reconciliation between the prevailing sects. That on one hand the papal authority was so humbled, and on the other the general voice of infidelity and impiety so loud, that without such an union of the churches, the Christian religion was altogether endangered, to the ruin of states, and dissolution of all social order. He was wont to attribute to the growth and multiplicity of sects, the chief evils,

vils, particularly revolutionary
nes, to kingdoms and states, and
ould illustrate his point by the
xample of that convulsion which
rought Charles I. to the block, at-
tributing it entirely to the secta-
ian principles which grew out of
ne Reformation; that to the same
principles which allowed every
man to think for himself in mat-
ers of doctrine and faith, and to
xpound the scriptures as suited
is ambition or interest, arose by
n imperceptible gradation the va-
ous opinions which have distin-
guished, as he thought, unitarians,
eists, and atheists, of modern
me, with all the antecedent and
intermediate casts, which went
o form the most pernicious cli-
ax of errors in the human heart
nd head: that the French Revolu-
on was the effect of these opera-
ons, which had pervaded almost
ntirely the upper orders in that
ngdom, and by the manœuvres
the *philosophes* had begun to
penetrate the middle and lower
ies.—That as early as the regency
the Duke of Orleans, the trains
ere laid of this tremendous and
estilential explosion; but the
ound had been unwittingly pre-
ered in the former reign by de-
roying the liberties, independence,
d high character of the Gallican
urch: It is not necessary to fol-
v or defend him in these opi-
ons; nor would they have been
entioned, but that his profound
nowledge in the ecclesiastical his-
y of France, entitled him to
ve an opinion, and there is no-
ng amiss—but the tincture it
ceives from the religion he
bessed. His mind delighted in
ficulties, and he probably had
mployed as much thought on
e practicability of an Universal
urch; as ever the Abbé St.

Pierre had done on that of a
perpetual peace; led on like him
enthusiastically by the greatness
of the object and its importance
to the happiness of man.

From the declamations he has
been known to fall into, in favour
of civil liberty, and in praise of the
ancient Greek Republics respect-
ing the arts, many ran awy with
the notion, that he was a republi-
can, and disaffected to monarchical
institutions. He often declaimed
for victory, from occasional love
of opposition, or momentary pique
and prejudice. Dr. Johnson was
known to do the same. But in
his cooler moments, he has been
heard again and again to assert,
that no governments could be
worse for a peaceful and virtuous
man, than those worthless Greek
republics, as he called them. In
the Athenian, which was the best,
moral worth was always in danger
from democratic turpitude. But to
say no more, that man's republican-
ism will go for little, who inva-
riably worshipped the character
and memory of Charles the First,
and detested the selfishness and
hypocrisy of parties who planned
and achieved his downfall. Though
he abominated the memory of
William III. yet he hailed the de-
liverance which was achieved by
his coming, and spoke highly of
the characters who brought about
the great work of our constitution;
which he considered as the wisest
fabric of government ever planned
by the mind of man. It is neces-
sary to say thus much, in order to
vindicate him from aspersions,
which have occasionally been ut-
tered against him on this head.

In his enthusiasm after art, he
was apt to over-rate his profession,
and to place its utility too high in
the scale of human occupations,

lamenting that an universal taste did not prevail for the highest style of *art*. No man was better fitted to shew that this style can only be understood, and consequently relished by the educated and polished orders of society, and that the mass of mankind have something else, and perhaps something better to do, than to be gazing on pictures and statues. This always was, and always will be the case. The bulk of Italians never heard of Corregio or Raffael: who among our peasantry know any thing even of a Milton? who among them will ever hear of a Reynolds, or a Barry?

There was a better reason for his lamenting that so much of the superfluous wealth of individuals should be thrown away upon the sumptuary rather than the fine arts; upon inanities or monstrosities; upon things which are not likely to impress posterity with much reverence for the good sense, or good taste of the period.

His ordinary language of conversation was often coarse and unpolished, and he had acquired a bad habit of interspersing it with oaths; yet we have seen him several times in the company of men of rank, when he put himself on his guard; and his language became not only correct, but polished, and even courtly: if he could catch the forms of beauty for his canvas, he knew where they lay for language and sentiment—and there is no doubt, if fortune had led him more under the eyes of the great, his manner would readily have transformed itself. Even as it was, people soon forgot his rough language and his oaths in the strength of his mind: we have witnessed many instances of this, and once saw a devout old lady en-

tering the room where he was, hold him for some time in a sort of horror. The conversation however happened to turn on the nature of Christian meekness, which gave him an opportunity of opening on the character of our Saviour—with that power of heart and mind, and energy of words, that in spite of the oaths which fell abundantly, the old lady remarked that she never heard so divine a man in her life, and desired to know who he was.

So with respect to his dress, of which he was always very negligent, and even at times squalid, that strangers would stare when they saw him in company, as if a beggar had been picked up and brought in. Yet his appearance was forgot, the moment he began to discourse on any subject. Such are the effects produced by a vigorous and commanding mind, whose power, by the reveries it calls up, can agitate or compose the passions, suspend the senses, and aggrandize or annihilate the casualties of time, place, and objects.

In his person he was rather under the common size, but with limbs well set together, and active even to the last: In his face one could see lines prematurely engraved by workings of an impassioned mind, so that he appeared older than he really was. There was something very sweet and agreeable in his smiles—but his looks, when roused by anger, were ferocious indeed. Of such sensibilities was he compounded, that according as things floated in his mind, it was not uncommon to see these opposite extremes at very short intervals of time. It required no long acquaintance with him to see his character for frankness, boldness, and decision, as co-

one who despised subterfuge and contrivance of every kind, and who disdained a lie from his heart, with all its subordinate colourings of simulation or dissimulation: he was indeed a very honest man; but one of his greatest characteristics was his fortitude, that quality of the heart which never suffered him to feel depressed in the midst of his comfortless situation—a situation which the poorest man could not envy, and which few men could have sustained so many years as he did—that is, in a house which presented the picture of a ruin by its sunken walls and broken windows, without a servant, without a bed that could be called a bed, in coldness, dirt, solitude, and poverty. The last is perhaps a strong word, not applicable in a

rigid sense, and certainly not in his own opinion, who felt rich if he had but wherewith to procure food, raiment, and a shelter, despising other wants. He felt less for himself as to these wants than his friends felt for him; among whom, a nobleman of great and correct mind (as has been related) kindly thought it his duty to solicit for Mr. Barry the assistance of the public, as a debt due from that public to him. A sum of money was accordingly raised by subscription, but was invested too late to be of any use; and the probability is, that as the assistance had been withheld so long, in the pride of his heart Barry was not sorry to escape without tasting the obligation.”

CHARACTER OF WILLIAM PALEY, D.D.

[From Mr. MEADLEY's Memoirs of his Life.]

“SELDOM has there been a writer more fitted for the great task of instructing mankind than Dr. Paley, or one that has more nearly hit the true tone of moral instruction. Every thing that regards such a man is interesting to the world; and I am rejoiced to find, that your *Memoirs of his Life and Writings* are at length ready to appear from the press. To the faithful, and even painful diligence, with which the work has been performed, my testimony shall be cheerfully borne; wherever it may be likely either to recommend the merits or to excuse the defects of Dr. Paley's biographer. Still happier should I have been, if any assistance of mine could have contributed to render the *Memoirs* more

completely satisfactory, at once to yourself and to the public. As it is, however, I trust you will derive no discredit, and the subject of your labours no disparagement, from the tribute you have paid to his talents and his virtues.

Far from thinking your account of Paley's early days over-done, I wish you had possessed more intelligence, from authentic sources, of his habits and pursuits, at that period when the elements of his character first assumed a definite organization. At Cambridge, as you know, Paley is one of our heroes: and of the hero the very infancy is always fancied, and sometimes found, to prefigure the manhood, as morning shews the day. It is thus that we look back with curious

rious affection to discover the ultimate causes of that something *unique* and peculiar in Paley's bold cast of conception and delivery. To refer this to the exercise of his talents as a college lecturer, of which, by the way, we want a more detailed account from some intelligent pupil, is only to come one step nearer the cause of his originality, without reaching the spring itself; which, I apprehend, after all, must be traced to the peculiar scene of his boyhood and youth. In a spot comparatively rude and rustic, like Giggleswick, in the free and familiar acquaintance with a people of strong mother wit and Sabine simplicity, the peculiar genius of Paley was formed, void of art, and abhorrent to all affectation. Without change of place and the benefit of higher education, he would have been more coarse without being less vigorous, and not less clear in what he knew, though not so extensively enlightened. But had he been brought up in the politeness of a city, or in the regular discipline of a great public school, his character must have lost in rugged solidity, whatever it gained in refinement and elegance; and while in his books, if he had written any, he might have avoided the charge of colloquial homeliness, or want of dignity in his diction, the stamp of mind would hardly have been so deep and broad in the impression of his style, or his mind itself, in the mode at least of its exertion, so clear from all fastidious nicety, and so free in adopting images of illustration for their strength and point with little regard to beauty and still less to fashion. In short, we know very well and prize most highly what we actually had in Paley; and there is little reason to

think, that any supposed advantage of different circumstances, in his early life, could have produced any thing like the same combination of talents and usefulness. To those indeed who love the *exuberance* of native character, there is in the writings of Paley, as connected with his personal *naïveté*, every thing to interest and gratify. And for those, if such there be, who yet desiderate in him a higher temperament of sensibility, or a finer delicacy of expression, let them learn to take substantial excellence wherever they are happy enough to find it, though it be not quite *rectified* up to their own exquisite standard of taste. For, after all, as Paley most candidly and happily says; when speaking of his friend and first patron Bishop Law, "it is the condition of human morality. There is an opposition between some virtues which seldom permits them to subsist together in perfection."

On the other hand, I know there are persons who lament that intellectual powers, like those of Paley, were not more devoted to profound disquisition, to the discovery of new truth rather than to the establishment and recommendation of doctrines and principles already well known and believed. Here again, there are grounds for contentment. In what he actually has done, the benefit we enjoy is invaluable. Whether in any other department his inquiries would have been, if bold, successfully pursued, and if so, crowned besides with popularity and usefulness, is all mere conjecture. Indeed, the limited sale of his *Horæ Paulinæ*, though a contribution from one man, and from one mind, almost unparalleled, to the evidences of Christianity, and the most decisive proof

proof of talents profoundly original, might seem to indicate, that in his other works he had adorned the very province of instruction, where the public want most required the exertion of those gifts, by nature and habit, so richly bestowed upon him. Be that as it will, we are told that one drop of cold water will chill and condense a mighty volume of steam: and one cannot wonder, that Paley's freedom of speculation should show itself so little in the prudent years of later life, when, at the very first outset of a young and vigorous spirit, he was rebuked for proposing, in an academical exercise, to controvert the *eternity of hell torments*, which even the cautious orthodoxy of our church has not made an article of faith, and the necessity of *capital punishments*, which has never been reckoned otherwise than a fair point for philosophical and political discussion.

When I first heard of the question for the *Senior Bachelors' Essay* in 1765, you may remember my remark, that we might naturally anticipate, but not for vulgar reasons, Paley's choice in espousing the Epicurean rather than the Stoic cause. At no time of his life could he be mistaken for one "of those budge doctors of the Stoic fur;" and certainly not about the time of writing that Essay. The composition of it therefore found Paley going a certain road, and such an effort of study might help to determine the strong tendencies of his character, by adding the conviction of intellect to the force of nature and habit. The young academic, as some of us well recollect, lets his mind be earnestly interested in maintaining either side of a question, even

when he is not free to choose whether: but in Paley's defence of an argument freely chosen, and virtually involving the point on which his own peculiarity of feeling, speaking, and acting, very much hinged, one is easily led to fancy, that the peculiarity itself would be greatly developed in the progress of discussion. And on the whole the perusal of the Essay did not in any way disappoint the expectation with which I took it up. The young adventurer proceeds, it is true, with a more controlled and delicate step: but still it is the gait and march of Paley. This appears more strikingly in the English notes, which indeed possess the vigour and clearness of his usual style, with many things now and then in his boldest manner of expression.

What language for instance can be more pregnant with sense than his calling the Stoics "those Pharisees in philosophy;" and what more just, if we only consider that spiritual pride and hypocrisy belonged to both sects alike, and that while the one raised the observance of external rites to an equality of obligation with the moral law, the other pertinaciously maintained that all crimes are equal. The Stoic paradox, though defended by the subtlety of Cicero, stands exposed by the wit of Horace to just contempt; and must on every principle of common sense be exploded, as inhuman in its spirit, and immoral in its tendency. Paley, who never weakens the claims of duty by over-stating them, and who marks criminality with a candid eye on a graduated scale, has been unfairly apprehended by the rigid righteousness of certain strict moralists for his chapter on *Lies*; a chapter which, throughout enlight-

ened

ened and liberal, is more especially recommended by a note on the base artifice of decoying an enemy through counterfeit distress, and is more likely after all to offend some minds by the strong censure of *pious frauds*, than to injure any by a most guarded extenuation of a few secular falsehoods of the lowest moment.

Paley most clearly understood the value of the Christian revelation to mankind; and, brought up in the school of Locke, of whose doctrines he was thoroughly master, and of Law, whose peculiar merits he afterwards recorded in a modest dedication, it is no wonder that he held in utter contempt "the pompous maxims and futile reasonings" of the greater part of the ancient philosophers. Happy had it been for Christianity, if all the eminent professors of it had kept their belief of its principles equally free from the impregnation of pagan reveries. The simplicity of evangelical truth yet labours under much incumbrance of science falsely so called. The close of that admirable chapter on *reverencing the Deity*, may help to show in what light Paley viewed the best metaphysical demonstrations of the immortality of the soul; independently of the dreams and figments which disgrace the 'right reasonings,' even when such they are, of learned heathens on the subject. Yet there exists at this day—I scarcely believe it, but am told—a certain fanatic Platonist; who verily maintains that the *Phædo* dialogue was designed by Providence, as a preliminary post-script to the Gospel of St. John.

To return to the Epicurean Essay. The minor faults in the composition are nearly the same as these, which a critical eye may

detect in that immortal letter of Locke's on Toleration, and arise chiefly from the intrusion of the English in place of the Latin idiom. The Dissertation however is written in a good strong style; and while it shows a close and familiar acquaintance with the philosophical works of Tully, presents several happy allusions to the Roman poets. Of Horace he does not make so free a use, as the very inviting occasion might have suggested. For if ever good sense adorned and recommended the practical maxims of the Epicurean school, and exhibited the character as humane, benevolent, and amiable; unquestionably such a picture may be found in the most valuable parts of Horace's writings, which, generally speaking, are those of his later years. The moral temperament, indeed, of the Epicurean has been often found united, not unnaturally, with the mild virtues of the Christian; and when we contemplate such men as Evelyn and Cowley, in the gardens of retirement and leisure, holding converse with God and with nature, who can help admiring and loving that amenity of disposition which marks the language of their heart! nor can one in such company forget honest Isaac Walton, in whose pure and tranquil mind the dearest wish of his favourite Hooker may be traced—to "see God's blessings spring from his mother earth, and to eat his own bread in peace and privacy." Yet imagine not, that I am insensible to the very different merits of some, not individuals only, but whole families, that in bearing the Stoic name, and in practising the best moral energies belonging to it in the worst of times, have thrown a train of brightness over the

the history of imperial Rome, where it is otherwise most dark, gloomy, and horrible. A full and connected memoir of those illustrious Romans, beginning with Arria and ending with the younger Helvidius, on the authority of Tacitus and of Pliny's Letters, is a desideratum in literature which I have often regretted. And of all the wine, that an Englishman and lover of liberty might conceive most exquisite to the patriotic palate, commend me to that described in Juvenal—

Quale coronati Thræsea Helvidiusque
"bibebant,
Brutorum et Cassi natalibus."

Such wine as Thræsea and Helvidius used to drink on the birth-days of the two Bruti and of Cassius, the first and last heroes of the Roman Republic. Yet in his speculative notions the lean Cassius was professed Epicurean.—So much for the influence of the creed of philosophy on the good works of patriotism.

If ever that first known performance of Paley's be given from the press to his admirers, you will hardly recommend my pen, after this specimen, in the task of commenting on it: but you know the miserable want of leisure and unavoidable distraction of thought, under which I now write; and for the rest, if you still choose to print this desultory letter, you and not I undertake the responsibility with the public.

I had intended to give you a short sketch of Paley's talents as a classical scholar: it must suffice to assure you, as I very truly can, for in his own department a man may speak with some confidence), that wherever in his *Horæ Pauli-*

ne any criticism on the Greek language is employed, his remarks, without ostentation, are eminently acute, vigorous, and just. Indeed all his knowledge seems to have been sound, as far as it went. No man ever abused learning less, or was less the dupe of learning. And though all his life he studied things more than words, yet he perfectly understood, at the proper time, to turn an exact knowledge of words to a very substantial account.

I must add, that his motto for the Dissertation derived singular felicity from the event of its gaining the first prize. Possibly too, he might have tried without any success the year before.

"Non jam prima peto Mnestheus, ne-
"que vincere certo,
"Quamquam O!"—*Æneid*, v. 194, 5.

"I seek not now the foremost palm to
"gain.
"Though yet—but ah!"—*Dryden*.

Nor can I, as a Cambridge man, overcome the temptation here to recommend my own Alma Mater for this institution of the Bachelors Prizes, amongst many others calculated generally to improve the talents and direct the principles of ingenuous young men. It is something too to reflect upon with pride, that in the year 1792, when the worst of times were just opening upon us at home and abroad, ruinous to Europe, to ourselves most calamitous, the integrity of Cambridge umpires awarded the first prize to Tweddel's splendid and eloquent, but honest and bold, "Oratio pro æqua libertatē." Yet a higher topic of gratulation offers itself, of a few years earlier date. The late excellent Dean of Peterborough, Dr. Peckard, master of Magdalen, and in 1785 vice-chancellor,

cellor, in the exercise of the latter office being himself a warm friend to civil and religious liberty, under circumstances pointing directly to the African slave-trade, proposed for the Senior Bachelors' Prizes the question of slavery in respect of its lawfulness. Thomas Clarkson, Senior Bachelor of St. John's, though first roused by the call of honour, soon devoted his whole heart and soul to the cause of injured humanity. The higher of the two prizes was assigned to his Dissertation. And almost from that moment, this righteous man—not surpassed by Howard in the active zeal and personal labours of philanthropy—became the indefatigable apostle through evil report and good report of the *abolition* emphatically so called; till at length, to speak the poet's language, the foul bosom of this Country hath been cleansed of the most perilous stuff that ever weighed upon the heart. For the academical institution here celebrated I would not claim more praise than is justly due to it; but to that institution ultimately, not less than to any single cause whatever, is it too much to attribute, under heaven, one of the most glorious triumphs ever obtained by the principle of good over the principle of evil?

It is time to conclude this long and digressive letter: and yet in justice to the memory of Paley, it may be right, before concluding, to state, for the silencing of cavers, since such are abroad, that neither in the Dissertation nor in the notes is there one word or sentiment unfavourable to religion or to morality, but the strictest and most earnest regard to the interests of both. Of Epicurus's philosophy, even when rightly and can-

didly understood, he is only the advocate, *on the whole* as preferable to that of Zeno. The Dissertator is perfectly free from every thing connected with the worse and vulgar sense of the word Epicurean, which now means nothing but voluptuous, and selfish, and base. One of his most powerful attacks on the Stoic code of morals, turns on its allowing promiscuous concubinage, the bane of personal virtue, of generous affection, of domestic and social happiness. This part of the Essay is every way worthy of the writer; and those chapters on the *relative duties which result from the constitution of the sexes*. His reprobation of the Stoic dogmas in favour of suicide I should hardly now mention, but through you to remind those whom it may concern, that a very masterly sermon of Paley against suicide is somewhere in existence, which ought not to be lost to the world.

There is an admired sentence of Locke, which Paley must have had strongly in his mind, when he wrote the following paragraph which concludes his Dissertation.

Illuxit aliquando Religio cujus auctor est Deus, cujus materia veritas, cujus finis est felicitas. Religio aliquando illuxit quæ Stoicis paradoxon in principiis vere Epicureis fundari voluit. Sufficit autem felicitatem virtus, virtutis tamen finis est felicitas. Stabile denique quiddam est in quo pedem figamus patetque nil veterem potuisse disciplinam, nil non perfecisse Christianam.

“At length the day-spring from on high hath visited us with a religion, which has *God for its author, truth for its matter, and happiness for its end*; a religion which on principles truly Epicurean estab-

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blishes the Stoic paradox of the sufficiency of virtue. Virtue alone is now sufficient to secure our happiness in this world; and yet happiness in another world is the proper end and motive of all virtue which is practised in this. We have at last, therefore, a foundation

on which we may rest and build in safety; and as it is certain, that by the doctrines of ancient philosophy, little or nothing was done for the good of mankind, so it is equally certain that nothing has been left undone for it by Christianity."

SKETCH of Mr. ROMNEY's PROFESSIONAL CHARACTER.

[By G. FLAXMAN, Esq.]

"**A**CCORDING to the maxim, that "every painter paints himself," each picture presents in some measure a transcript of its author's merits and defects. The judicious eye will easily discern whether the work was produced with sensibility, or want of feeling; the choice and treatment of the subject will discover whether his mind was elevated or low, as the detail of parts will explain in what branches of knowledge he was skilled or deficient, to what extent he had chosen and analysed the beauties of nature, and finally whether the work was accomplished by painful patient labour, or flowed with ease and rapidity, which increased the delight and exultation of the progress. These characteristics may be as easily traced in the works of Romney, as in those of any artist that ever existed. Modest in his opinion of his own talents, he practised no tricks or deception to obtain popularity; but as he loved his art fervently, he practised it honestly, with indefatigable study and application. The circumstances of his early life seemed wholly unpropitious to the study of painting. His school education was brief and

common, as he was brought up to the business of a cabinet-maker. Yet these obstacles, great and insurmountable as they would have been, to many, were by him converted into so many steps in the ascent to excellence. If his memory was not much exercised in learning words at school, some of his other faculties were not idle. His contemplative mind was employed in observing carefully, inquiring minutely into, and reflecting continually on, the objects around him, and thus by comparing and adding the results of his own observation, with the little he was taught, he gained perhaps as much useful knowledge as is commonly acquired, in the ordinary way, with greater assistance from books and masters. His employment of cabinet-making, which, to a common observer, would seem little better than an ingenious mechanical drudgery, led his inquisitive mind to contemplate the principles of mathematical science, and to acquaint himself with the elements of architecture. When he first began to paint, he had seen no gallery of pictures, nor the fine productions of ancient sculpture; but men, women, and children were

were his statues, and all objects under the cope of heaven formed his school of painting. The rainbow, the purple distance, or the silver lake, taught him colouring; the various actions and passions of the human figure, with the forms of clouds, woods, mountains, or valleys, afforded him studies of composition. Indeed, his genius bore a strong resemblance to the scenes he was born in; like them, it partook of the grand and beautiful; and like them also, the bright sun-shine and enchanting prospects of his fancy were occasionally overspread with mist and gloom. Among his early productions, two very opposite subjects proved the versatility of his talents. The comic arrival of Dr. Slop at Shandy-hall, was one; the other was the death of General Wolfe, painted the size of life, universally admired for its sentiment and nature by crowds of spectators at the first exhibition in the Strand. On his arrival in Italy, he was witness to new scenes of art, and sources of study, of which he could only have supposed previously, that something of the kind might exist; for he there contemplated the purity and perfection of ancient sculpture, the sublimity of Michael Angelo's Sistine Chapel, and the simplicity of Cimabue's and Giotto's schools. He perceived these qualities distinctly, and judiciously used them in viewing and imitating nature; and thus his quick perception and unwearied application enabled him, by a two years residence abroad, to acquire as great a proficiency in art, as is usually attained by foreign studies of much longer duration. After his return, the novelty and sentiment of his original subjects were universally admired. Most of these were of the delicate class,

and each had its peculiar character. Titania with her Indian votaress was arch and sprightly; Milton dictating to his daughters, was solemn and interesting. Several pictures of Wood Nymphs and Bacchants, charmed by their rural beauty, innocence, and simplicity. From the Triumphs of Temper, he painted several pictures of Serena, all beautiful in idea, and striking in situation. But the most pathetic, perhaps, of all his works, was never finished; Ophelia, with the flowers she had gathered in her hand, sitting on the branch of a tree, which was breaking under her, whilst the melancholy distraction visible in her lovely countenance, accounts for the insensibility to her danger. Few painters have left so many examples in their works of the tender and delicate affections, and several of his pictures breathe a kindred spirit with the Sigismonda of Corregio. His cartoons, some of which have unfortunately perished, were examples of the sublime and terrible, at that time perfectly new in English art. The dream of Atossa, from the Persians of Æschylus, contrasted the death-like sleep of the Queen, with the Bacchanalian fury of the Genius of Greece. The composition was conducted with the fire and severity of a Greek bas-relief: the ghost of Darius, with the Persians prostrated before him, awed the spectator by grandeur and mystery. As Romney was gifted with peculiar powers for historical and ideal painting, so his heart and soul were engaged in the pursuit of it, whenever he could extricate himself from the importunate business of portrait-painting. It was his delight by day, and study by night; and for this his food and rest were often neglected. In trying to attain ex-

cellence in his art, his diligence was as unceasing, as his gratification in the employment. He endeavoured to combine all the possible advantages of the subject immediately before him, and to exclude whatever had a tendency to weaken it. His compositions, like those of the ancient pictures, and basso-relievos, told their story by a single group of figures in the front, whilst the back ground is made the simplest possible, rejecting all unnecessary episode, and trivial ornament, either of secondary groups, or architectural subdivision. In his compositions, the beholder was forcibly struck by the sentiment at the first glance, the gradations and varieties of which he traced through several characters, all conceived in an elevated spirit of dignity and beauty, with a lively expression of nature in all the parts. His heads were various: the male were decided and grand; the female lovely: his figures resembled the antique; the limbs were elegant, and finely formed; his drapery was well understood, either forming the figure into a mass, with one or two deep folds only, or by its adhesion and transparency, discovering the form of the figure, the lines of which were finely varied with the union or expansion of spiral or cascade folds, composing with, or contrasting the outline or chiaro-oscuro: he was so passionately fond of Grecian sculpture, that he had filled his study and galleries with fine casts from the most perfect statues, groups, basso-relievos, and busts of antiquity: he would sit and consider these in profound silence by the hour; and besides the studies in drawing or painting he made from them, he would examine them under all the changes of sun-shine and

day-light; and with lamps prepared on purpose at night, he would try their effects, lighted from above, beneath, and in all directions, with rapturous admiration. No one could be more modest concerning himself; seldom speaking of any thing he did, and never in reference to its merits. But he was exceedingly liberal respecting others, rarely finding faults in the works of his contemporaries, and giving cordial praise wherever he saw excellence. An instance of his conduct relating to Sir Joshua Reynolds deserves to be mentioned. Being present when some intimate friends were delivering their opinions on Sir Joshua's picture of Hercules strangling the serpents, painted for the Empress of Russia,—“Gentlemen,” (said he) I have listened to all “you have said; some observations are true, and some are “nonsense; but no other man in “Europe could paint such a picture.”—A peculiar shyness of disposition kept him from all association with public bodies, and led to the pursuit of his studies in retirement and solitude, which, at the same time that it encouraged habits of great temperance, allowed him the more leisure for observation, reflection, and trying his skill in other arts, connected with his own. And indeed few artists, since the fifteenth century, have been able to do so much in so many different branches; for besides his beautiful compositions and pictures, which have added to the knowledge and celebrity of the English school, he modelled like a sculptor, carved ornaments in wood with great delicacy, and could make an architectural design in a fine taste, as well as construct every part of the building. Although

though his shyness confined him to a few intimates, he was abundantly affectionate and gracious to them, of which the following instance shall speak for the rest. He was particularly delighted with youthful talents, and never neglected an opportunity of encouraging and recommending them.

Once he endeavoured to press two hundred pounds on a young man going abroad to study, who was not in affluent circumstances; and on the money being refused, he exerted himself by recommendation, and every means in his power, until he actually did render him much more important services."

PUBLIC FUNERAL and CHARACTER of SIR PHILIP SIDNEY.

[From Dr. Zouch's Memoirs of his Life and Writings.]

"A GENERAL mourning for the death of Sir Philip Sidney was observed among those of higher rank; "no gentlemen for many months appearing in a gay or "gawdy dress either in the city or "the court." And this is presumed to be the first instance in England of a public mourning for a private person. It has been justly remarked, that "the partiality of an individual may mis- "take the qualities of a friend; but "the testimony of a whole nation "places his merits beyond dispute." Even the hard heart of Philip of Spain was softened into sorrow on this lamentable occasion: and when it was first announced to his secretary, Don Bernardino de Mendoza, he is said to have used words to this purpose, "That, however glad he was King "Philip his master had lost, in a "private gentleman, an enemy to "his estate, yet he could not but "lament to see Christendom deprived of so rare a light in these "cloudy times, and bewail poor "widow England;" so he termed her, "that having been many "years in breeding one eminent "spirit, was in a moment be-

"reaved of him." The states of Holland earnestly petitioned to have the honour of burying his body at the national expence; engaging themselves to erect for him as fair a monument as any prince had in Christendom. This petition was rejected, the Queen having determined to manifest her veneration for his memory, by directing his obsequies at her own cost, and with all the magnificence and solemnities due to a noble soldier. His body was removed to Flushing, and embarked there on the 1st day of November, "attended by "the English garrison, which were "twelve hundred, marching by "three and three, the shott hanging down their pieces, the halberts, pykes, and enseignes, trailing along the ground, drums and fifies playing very softly. The "body was covered with a paule "of velvet: the burghers of the "towne followed mourning, and "so soon as he was embarked, the "small shott gave him a triple "volley: then all the great ordinance about the wallès were "discharged twice, and so took "their leave of their well-beloved "governour. From thence he was "transported

transported in a pyinnis of his
own, all her sayles, tackling, and
other furniture were coloured
blacke, and blacke clothe hang-
ing rounde about her, with es-
couchions of his arms, and she
was accompanied with divers
other shippes."

On the fifth day of November,
his remains were landed at Tower-
mill, London, and conveyed to the
Minories in Aldgate, where they
lay in state. On the sixteenth day
of February following, they were
deposited in St. Paul's cathedral,
with a celebrity and poimp that far
exceeded the funeral of a private
citizen. The procession was be-
gun by thirty-two poor men, for he
was so many years old. His brother,
Sir Robert Sidney, was the
chief mourner. The pall was sup-
ported by the Earls of Huntingdon,
Leicester, Essex, and Pembroke,
and the Barons Willoughby and
North. They were followed by a
very numerous train, and among
others by seven representatives of
the Seven United Provinces, "clo-
thed in black,"—by the Lord Mayor
and Aldermen of London on horse-
back, in their scarlet gowns, lined
with ermine,—by the company of
grocers, in their livery gowns, to
the number of one hundred and
twenty, Sir Philip being free of
their company.

On a pillar in the choir of St.
Paul's there hung formerly a tablet,
with the following inscription :

England, Netherland, the heavens, and
" the arts,
The soldier and the world have made six
" parts
Of the noble SYDNEY, for none will
" suppose,
That a small heap of stones can SYD-
" NEY inclose ;
His body hath England, for she it
" bred,
Netherlands his blood, in her defence
" shed.

" The heavens have his soul, the arts
" have his fame,
" All soldiers the grief, the world his good
" name."

Among the monuments and
tombs engraved by Hollar in Sir
William Dugdale's history of St.
Paul's cathedral, there doth not
appear to have been one for Sir
Philip Sidney. No kind friend, no
surviving relative, erected any other
memorial to him, than the tablet
above mentioned, conscious, as it
were, that his fame did not require
aid from brass or marble.

The Queen was deeply afflicted
at the death of so brave and loyal a
subject. When Lord Nottingham
once applied to her in favour of Sir
Robert Sidney, who had requested
to be recalled from his govern-
ment at Flushing, she answered—
" that he was descended of noble
" blood—that his ancestors had
" been famous members of her
" estate—that she had a special
" great loss of them, and much
" lamented the untimely death of
" his brother, Sir Philip Sidney ;
" but she had cause to rejoice he
" had yet remained, whose worth
" and sufficiency she had tried in
" many services abroad."

He was succeeded in the office of
governor of Flushing, by his very
good friend, Sir William Russel,
the youngest son of Francis the se-
cond Earl of Bedford. This ex-
cellent soldier, being general of the
horse in the United Provinces, was
present at the battle of Zutphen,
where he displayed the most as-
tonishing proofs of his courage.
Stowe has given a particular ac-
count of his prowess:—" He
" charged so terribly, that, after
" he had broke his lance, he so
" played his part with his cuttle-
" axe, that the enemy reported him
" to be a devil and not a man ; for
" where

“where I saw six or seven of the
“enemies together, thither would
“he, and so behave with his cut-
“tle-axe, that he would separate
“their friendship.”

His will was dated on the thirtieth day of September 1586. It will not surely be thought unreasonable to remark, that the preamble of it is expressed in that language of christian piety, which was then generally used, but which the refinement of modern times has relinquished; as if a religious formula was inconsistent with our frame of mind at that awful period, when the idea of our mortality should be particularly impressive. “In the name of God. Amen. “I Sir Philip Sidney knight, sore “wounded in body, but whole in “mind, do make this my last will “and testament in manner and “form following: First, I be- “queath my soul to Almighty “God that gave it me, and my “body to the dust from whence it “came.” This, his last will, affords a pleasing testimony of a most beneficent and humane disposition. He enumerates in it many of his domestics, names their faithful and affectionate services, recommends some of them to the protection of his friends, and assigns liberal bequests to them all. For one of them, who was a prisoner of war, he manifests a more than usual anxiety, that he might be delivered from his miserable captivity. Such marks of attention, however trifling they may appear, exhibit a mind feelingly alive to the distresses of others—a nature full of the milk of human kindness. Mr. Strype has quoted a clause of Sir Philip Sidney’s will, as a proof of his justice and integrity among his other admirable qualities: “Item, I will and ab-

“solutely authorize Sir Francis
“Walsingham and my brother
“Robert Sidney, or either of them
“to sell so much of my lands ly-
“ing within the countys of Lin-
“coln, Sussex, or Southampton
“as shall pay all my debts, as well
“those of my father’s deceased, as
“of mine own, beseeching them
“to hasten the same, and to pay
“the creditors with all possible
“speed, according to that letter
“of attorney which Sir Francis
“Walsingham already hath seale-
“d and subscribed by me to that
“end. Which letter of attorney
“I do hereby confirm and ratify
“so far forth as concerneth for
“that purpose to all effects con-
“law.” He seems to be most
eagerly desirous of accomplishing
this last and essentially necessary
act of justice, by directing every
legal measure to be pursued for
that end.

Never was the Italian adage
more strongly verified:

“Chisemina virtu, fama raccoglie.”

How happily has the venerable
Camden portrayed the pre-emi-
nence of his character!

“PHILIP SIDNEY, not to be
“omitted here without an unpardon-
“able crime, the greatest glory
“of his family, the great hopes of
“mankind, the most lively pat-
“tern of virtue, and the darling of
“the world, nobly engaging the
“enemy at Zutphen in Guelder-
“land, lost his life bravely and
“valiantly. This is that Sidney
“whom as Providence seems to
“have sent into the world to give
“the present age a specimen of
“the ancients, so did it on a sud-
“den recall him, and snatch him
“from us, as more worthy of hea-
“ven than of earth. Thus when
“virtue

“virtue is come to perfection, it
 “presently leaves us, and the best
 “things are seldom lasting. Rest
 “then in peace, O Sidney, if I
 “may be allowed this address.
 “We will not celebrate thy me-
 “mory with tears but with admi-
 “ration. ‘Whatever we loved
 “in thee,’ (as the best author
 “speaks of the best governor of
 “Britain,) ‘whatever we admired
 “in thee, continues, and will
 “continue in the memories of
 “men, the revolutions of ages,
 “and the annals of time. Many
 “as inglorious and ignoble are
 “buried in oblivion, but Sidney
 “shall live to all posterity.” For,
 “as the Greek poet has it, ‘Vir-
 “tue’s beyond the reach of
 “Fate.” A biographical writer
 of the seventeenth century classes
 the English Sidney, Mountjoy, and
 Raleigh, with the Grecian Xeno-
 phon and the Roman Cæsar, men
 most renowned both in arms and
 letters.

In those beautiful verses of
 Thomson, “the poet of the Sea-
 “sons,” wherein he celebrates the
 sons of glory, “who have adorned
 “Britain,” it would have been un-
 pardonable in him to have omitted
 Sir Philip Sidney, one of the first
 among “the numerous worthies
 “of the Maiden Reign.”

“Nor can the muse the gallant SID-
 “NEY pass,
 “The plume of war! with early laurels
 “crown’d,
 “The lover’s myrtle and the poet’s bay.”
 SUMMER, v. 1510.

The death of Sir Philip Sidney
 was the cause of deep regret to his
 dear and intimate friend Du Plessis,
 who wrote the following Letter to
 Sir Francis Walsingham on the
 melancholy event.

“Sir, Jan. 1587.
 “I have been made acquainted
 “with the melancholy news of the
 “death of Mr. Sidney. I have
 “experienced troubles and disap-
 “pointments in these miserable
 “times, but nothing which lay hea-
 “vier upon me, nor so struck me
 “to the heart, no private or public
 “calamity which ever so sensibly
 “affected me. I feel it deeply,
 “both on your account and my
 “own, I bewail his loss, and re-
 “gret him; not for England only,
 “but for all Christendom. The
 “Almighty has envied us the pos-
 “session of him, judging him
 “perhaps worthy of a better world.
 “But assuredly at no time could
 “his departure have been less ex-
 “pedient than at present, if God
 “intended to reform the age. It
 “is this which makes me despair
 “of better days, when I see the
 “good taken from us, and merely
 “dregs left behind. It is too se-
 “vere a misfortune to have lost
 “in the space of one year two such
 “men as Mr. Comte de Laval and
 “Mr. Sidney, alike in their per-
 “sons, equally beloved by their
 “friends, and respected by the
 “world. From henceforth I feel
 “inclined either to entertain no
 “regard for any one, or to abhor
 “myself: yet I constantly finish
 “with a resolution to cherish a
 “love for my friends, and to give
 “them proof of my esteem in
 “every thing which concerns
 “them.

“To yourself in particular I am
 “desirous of giving increased proof
 “of my affection, my esteem, and
 “my devotion. Do me therefore
 “the honour of permitting me to
 “rise in your good opinion, and
 “let us sum up all in one word,
 “‘The will of God be done,’
 “whom I pray,” &c.

Learned foreigners were ambitious to recommend their writings to the favour of Sir Philip Sidney. It would be scarcely possible to enumerate all those eminent persons who composed this bright assemblage of scholars. The names of those few who are here selected, are known to every lover of science. And it redounds not a little to the honour of this country, that a private English gentleman, whose life did not much exceed the period of thirty years, should be celebrated throughout all Europe as the general patron of letters.

Lambertus Danæus was born and educated in the communion of the church of Rome. Having seen at Paris the famous Anne de Bourg, counsellor of parliament, under whom he had studied the civil law, burnt for heresy, he was so affected by his constancy and magnanimity, that, as he had admired him through his whole life, for his knowledge and virtue, he believed that so great and good a man would not have embraced the Protestant religion, without the clearest conviction of its truth. Hence he was induced to examine that religion, and he made a public confession of it at Geneva; and relinquishing the study of jurisprudence, he applied himself to theology, and became one of the most excellent of the Protestant divines. —In 1579 he dedicated to Mr. Philip Sidney his "*Poetica Geographia*." Among many other theological works of distinguished merit, he was the author of a commentary on one of St. Paul's epistles. He was discouraged by Languet from inscribing to the same patron this last performance, because, in his explication of some passages in that epistle, he differed from the English expositors. This learned man had a strong predilec-

tion in favour of the English nation. He frequently expressed his desire of having it in his power to live in England, "that most happy country, the seat of peace and piety through the divine favour, and the wise government of that phoenix of the world, the excellent Queen Elizabeth, the most compassionate mother of the poor French, and the hospitalière of the children of God."

SCIPIO GENTILIS, an Italian, and the brother of Albericus Gentilis, the professor of civil law at Oxford, is celebrated for the elegance of his Latin poetry. He was happy in obtaining the esteem of Sir Philip Sidney, to whom he has addressed several of his poems, and among others his Paraphrase of different Psalms, and his "*Assembly of Pluto*," translated from the beginning of Tasso's *Jerusalem*; in the dedication of which he declares that his writings were promised, and are now delivered to him, who is not only a lover of poets, but the best of poets himself. "Others," he says, "admire in you, Philip Sidney, the splendour of your birth—your genius in your childhood, capable of all philosophy—your honourable embassy undertaken in your youth, and the experience obtained from visiting the cities, and viewing the manners of so many countries—the exhibition of your personal valour and prowess in the public spectacles and equestrian exercises, in your manhood:—let others admire all these qualities. I not only admire, but I love and venerate you; because you regard poetry so much as to excel in it: nor will I omit any opportunity of acknowledging my obligations to you, as far as it is in my power."

A native

A native of England experiences great difficulty in acquiring that mode of pronouncing the Latin language, which was then in use on the continent. This was peculiarly the case with Sir Philip Sidney. His earliest efforts to surmount this difficulty did not succeed. He thought it perhaps of too little moment to demand that attention, which was strenuously and repeatedly recommended to him by Languet. Yet he probably changed his sentiments on this subject, as he actually proposed the discussion of it to Justus Lipsius, a man of vast erudition, but of no taste. Hence originated the tractate which is inserted in the appendix to the first volume of the works of that learned person, under the title "*De recta pronuntiatione Latinæ linguæ.*" He inscribed it to our illustrious countryman, a few months previous to his death, addressing him as the bright star of Britain, on whom light is copiously diffused by Virtue, by the Muses, by the Graces, by Fortune. When Lipsius wrote this treatise, he resided in the university of Leyden, and lived in the outward profession of the reformed religion, having publicly abjured Popery. Afterward he returned to the church of Rome, and became a bold, though a weak, advocate of her doctrines.

On the revival of literature, when science, driven from Constantinople, took refuge in the courts of Europe, the typographic art was cultivated with the most laudable and unremitting assiduity. Robert Stephens and Henry Stephens his son, arrived at an uncommon proficiency in it. From their press issued elegant and correct editions of the most valuable writ-

ings of antiquity. Indeed nothing can surpass the neatness and beauty of their Hebrew, Greek, and Roman characters. The Latin Thesaurus of the father, and the Greek Thesaurus of the son, volumes more to be valued than the treasures of kings, have eternized their names.

Henry Stephens edited the new Testament in Greek, printed at his own press, in 1576. He remarks, that, about three years before, he had presented to Mr. Philip Sidney in person, a small volume of a Greek manuscript written with his own hand, containing moral maxims and directions for the conduct of life: "That work, says he, comprised the lessons of worldly prudence: this which I now offer to your acceptance, comprehends the lessons of heavenly wisdom. The one regarded only the condition of man in his present frail scene of existence, the other opens a prospect to immortality and bliss in a future state. I had then the pleasure of conversing with you. Now you are in a remote country:—between us,"

— obstacles are numerous interpos'd,
Vale dark'ning mountains, and the
"dashing sea."

He first saw him at Heydelburg, again at Strasburg, and a long time after at Vienna. In all these places his affection for him continually increased. The more he knew him, and the oftener he conversed with him, the more ardently and cordially did he esteem and love him. "This," he remarks, "was not extraordinary. Your accomplishments seemed to improve every day. May they continue to do so, until you attain such a degree of worth, as to aug-

"ment the glory of your native
"country."

He has observed in this edition that division of each chapter into verses, which had been begun and completed by his father with no very great degree of attention, or rather in a most careless and desultory manner, as he was travelling on horse-back from Paris to Lyons.

The text is printed with accuracy and neatness; and the several references on the margin, with the Latin interpretation of obscure words and phrases, greatly enhance its value. The preface, containing a dissertation on the style of the sacred writings, is composed with singular modesty, and discovers no small share of classic erudition and critical discernment. It is remarkable that the types used in the impression of this book exhibit an exact resemblance of the Greek hand-writing of the editor. In 1581 Henry Stephens printed the eight books of Herodian, with the elegant Latin version of Anglupolitianus. To them were added two books of the Historian Zoimus, the Greek text of which was then printed for the first time. This volume he inscribed to Mr. Sidney, his address to him beginning with these lines.

"Quid Sidneus agit? monitus multum-
"que monendus

"Ut partas tueatur opes, et perdere vitet
"Dona palatino puero quæ infudit Apol-
"lo."

He seems to have entertained the same fears which formerly alarmed Languet, lest the amusements and avocations of the English court should alienate him from study, and withdraw him from those literary pursuits which once engaged his whole time.

But among the foreigners of highly exalted fame in the republic of letters, who were struck with

admiration of the merit of Sir Philip Sidney, none surpassed Theophilus Banco, otherwise called Theophilus Banosius, a person most eminent for his knowledge of theology. He gave proofs of his diligence and fidelity in editing some of the works of Peter Ramus; and prefixed the life of that great man to his four books of Commentaries on the Christian Religion, printed at Frankfort in 1577. At the conclusion of this biographical work, the author solicits the attention of our learned countrymen; with all the warmth of the most sincere respect: "To you alone most famous Sidney, I present this account of Peter Ramus, faithfully recorded by me, along with these his Commentaries. I am impelled to this by the strongest motives. As children born after the death of their parents are committed to the care of friends most faithfully attached to their interest, so this posthumous work of Ramus is consigned to your protection: as you not only entertained the tenderest love for the writer, when alive, but now, that he is dead, esteem and reverence him. Add to this the recommendation of Hubert Languet, a man of the greatest celebrity in this our age, who first placed before me a true portrait of Philip Sidney: without flattery I pronounce you to be a perfect image and resemblance of nobility. For not to mention your descent from the family of the Earls of Warwick, eminently illustrious throughout all England, your virtue outshining the splendour of an high lineage, seems to be a theme of just encomium. I remember well, when I first saw you, when I first contemplated with wonder
"your

“your uncommon endowments of mind and body; I remember well, I say, the words of Gregory, who declared the Angli or English, that were at Rome, to be really Angels.”

To the enterprising genius of Ramus, bursting through the gloom in which all the schools of Europe had been long involved, we owe the introduction of a rational philosophy, which improved the human intellect and considerably enlarged the limits of human science. The comprehensive understanding of Sidney could not repose in the dark perplexities of the Aristotelian system. Hence no friendship could to him be more agreeable or more instructive, than that of the biographer of this enlightened reformer of learning, who had the resolution to maintain, in a public disputation at Paris, that all the propositions of Aristotle were false. Smit with the love of truth, Banosius caught the spirit, and, from a full conviction of their propriety, imbibed the opinions of Ramus. He resided at Frankfort, and was appointed by the Belgic Churches one of the members of the Synod, which was held at Dort, in 1577. He is commended by Languet for his goodness, his learning, and sincere attachment to Sidney. Besides other treatises on theological subjects, he wrote a censure of the severe proceedings of the Pope against Henry of Bourbon, King of Navarre, and afterwards King of France. Sixtus the Fifth, the most ambitious of all the Roman pontiffs, had issued out his bull of excommunication, with the usual maledictions of papal resentment, against that prince, proclaiming him not only guilty of heresy, but denominating him the protector of heretics, pronouncing him incapa-

ble of succeeding to the crown of France, and further absolving all his subjects from their oath of allegiance. The remarks of Banosius, the friend of Sir Philip Sidney, and the admirer of his virtues, on this severe and cruel edict, could not be ungrateful to the English Protestant, whose beloved sovereign had experienced a similar treatment from Pius the Fifth.

Nor were our countrymen, who aspired to fame in different parts of literature, less emulous to engage the favour, and to deserve the patronage of Sir Philip Sidney.

Every reader, conversant in the annals of our naval transactions, will cheerfully acknowledge the merit of Richard Hakluyt, who devoted his studies to the investigation of those periods of the English history, which regard the improvement of navigation and commerce. He had the advantages of an academical education. He was elected student of Christ-church in Oxford, in 1570, and was therefore contemporary with Sidney at the university. To him we are principally indebted for a clear and comprehensive description of those noble discoveries of the English nation made by sea or over land to the most distant quarter of the earth. His incomparable industry was remunerated with every possible encouragement by Sir Francis Walsingham and Sir Philip Sidney. To the latter, as to a most generous promoter of all ingenious and useful knowledge, he inscribed his first collection of voyages and discoveries, printed in 1582. Thus animated and encouraged, he was enabled to leave to posterity the fruits of his unwearied labours—an invaluable treasure of nautical information preserved in volumes, which even at this day, affix to his name

name a brilliancy of reputation, which a series of ages can never efface or obscure.

Few characters are superior to that of Sir Walter Raleigh, styled by Bishop Burnet, "one of the greatest men of the age in which he lived." The early friendship of Sidney, recommended him to the notice of the Earl of Leicester, whose patronage, assisted by his own wonderful talents and high attainments, gradually advanced him to that pre-eminence of distinction, which hath secured to him the admiration and applause of posterity; whilst the tragical event of his death will equally excite their commiseration and regret.

Sir Philip Sidney, nurtured in the school of science, cherished the divine art of poetry with the kindest and most beneficent indulgence. It is related of him, that upon trading the first stanza of the description of Despair, in the ninth canto of the first book of the "Faery Queen," he was seized with such an unusual transport of joy, that he commanded the steward to reward the author with fifty pounds—that on the perusal of the second stanza, he ordered the sum to be doubled—and that, proceeding to the third, he increased the gratuity to two hundred pounds, directing the payment to be made without delay, lest in his progress through the poem, he should be induced to give away all his property. This story, though frequently repeated, could not with propriety be passed over in silence in this volume, though it is attended with so many very doubtful circumstances, that it is extremely difficult to allow any degree of credit to it. Spenser was already known to him in a much earlier

period of his life, when the young poet spent several weeks at Penshurst, where he probably composed some of the pastorals in the Shepherd's Calendar. In this place of rural elegance they tuned their lyres together. To the advice of Sidney it is generally attributed, that he transferred his talents from pastoral to heroic poetry. The merit of cherishing the Faery Queen, while it was yet in its infancy, is assigned to him. That poem would probably never have existed, if the author of it had not been patronized by Sidney. Indeed Spenser himself, who was not encouraged by the government under which he lived, seems to acknowledge this, in a beautiful sonnet addressed to the Countess of Pembroke.

„ Remembrance of that most heroic
" spirit,

" The heavens' pride, the glory of
" our days,

" Which now triumpheth, through im-
" mortal merit

" Of his brave virtues, crown'd with
" lasting bays

" Of heavenly bliss, and everlasting
" praise;

" Who first my Muse did lift out of
" the flore

" To sing his sweet delights [in lowly
" lays,

" Bids me, most noble Lady, to adore

" In the divine resemblance of your
" face,

" Which with your virtues ye em-
" bellish more,

" And native beauty deck with hea-
" venly grace.

" For his, and for your own especial sake,

" Vouchsafe from him this token in good
" worth to take."

Dr. Birch, no inattentive or careless examiner of facts, is inclined to think that the dedication of the "Shepherd's Calendar," printed at London, in 4to. 1579, first introduced the poet to this his kind patron, through whose influence he was promoted to a very lucrative employment,

ployment, and whose death was the occasion of real grief to him. After a life chequered with a variety of prosperous and adverse events, or rather almost wholly

consisting of disappointment and distress, Spenser died, not indeed in extreme poverty and indigence, but by no means in a state of affluence and wealth."

ELOGY OF JOHN OPIE, Esq.

[From an Address to Prince Hoare, Esq. introductory to Mr. Opie's Lectures on Painting, by Mrs. Opie.]

IT has been observed that distinguished men generally resemble their works, and this observation appears to me strikingly true if applied to Mr. Opie. He greatly resembled his paintings; and, while the trivial defects both of him and them were obvious to the many, the unusual excellencies of both could be completely known and justly valued only by the few.

Any observer, however contemptible, might in some of his pictures discover a neglect of proper costume in his draperies, a too strict adherence to the *models* from which he painted, and an inattention to the minuter parts of art; but it required the eye of a connoisseur and the kindred feeling of an artist to distinguish and appreciate properly the simplicity of his designs, the justness of his representations, and the force of his light and shadow.—In like manner any one might observe in the artist himself a negligence in dress, a disregard of the common rules of common manners, and a carelessness to please those whom he considered as trifling and uninteresting; but it required a mind of powers nearly equal to his own, or gifted with a nice perception of uncommon endowments in others, to value, and to

call forth his acuteness of observation and his depth of thinking; to follow him through the wide range of his perceptions, and to profit by that just and philosophical mode of seeing and describing, on which his claims to mental superiority were so strongly built.

Those only whom he sufficiently respected to enter into argument with, or who were themselves fond of argument, are aware of the full extent of the powers of his mind:—with others, even when he loved them as friends, and valued them as companions, he indulged, for the most part, in conversation, which, though never trifling, was often unimportant, and which at least served the useful purpose of unbending a mind, only too frequently for the good of the frame which contained it, stretched to the very utmost limit. You have said of him that in argument he had the power of eliciting light from his opponent, and Mr. Northcote has exhibited his talent for conversing in another point of view, by observing that "it is difficult to say whether his conversation gave more amusement or instruction."—Certain indeed it is, that his power to amuse was equal to his power to instruct;—but, as flame shines brightest in certain

airs, he shone the most in certain societies. The fire of his mind required certain applications to elicit its brilliancy; and those were love, esteem, and respect for the companions with whom he was conversing, and a perfect confidence that they desired and valued his society.

I was induced to mention this circumstance from being fully aware that many persons, with whom Mr. Opie lived in apparent intimacy, had no suspicion of his possessing conversational talents of the highest order. But in general the *few* only possess a key to open in another the stores of mental excellence, especially when the entrance is also guarded by the proud consciousness of superiority, suspicious of being undervalued.

You, my dear Sir, were one of those who possessed a key, to unlock the mind of Mr. Opie, and to you were all its treasures known. You, therefore, are well aware that he excelled in aptness of quotation, that there was a peculiar playfulness of fancy in his descriptions; that he possessed the art of representing strongly the ridiculous in men and things, which he instantly and sensibly felt, and therefore the pictures drawn by his tongue lived as powerfully to the view as those from his pencil;—while his talent for repartee, for strong humour, and formidable though not malignant sarcasm, gave an ever-varying attraction to his conversation; an attraction which no one I believe was ever more sensible of than yourself, as you were one of the friends whom he never failed to welcome with an artless warmth of manner which always found its way to the heart, because it bore indisputable marks of having come from it.

But as I am fully sensible that

my testimony in favour of Mr. Opie's conversational superiority can add no weight to that given by you and Mr. Northcote, and that both you and he may be supposed biassed by the partiality of friendship, I beg leave to offer, in corroboration of its truth, authority of a very high description, and which has hitherto not met the public eye,—that of Mr. Horne Tooke, whom even those who dislike his politics must admire as a man not only of sagacity the most acute, but of attainments the most extraordinary, and that of Sir James Mackintosh, on whose talents it is needless for me to expatiate.

Mr. Tooke, while Mr. Opie was painting him, had not only the opportunity, but the power of 'sounding him, from his lowest note to the top of his compass'—And he said, a short time afterwards, to one of his most distinguished friends, "Mr. Opie crowds more wisdom into a few words than almost any man I ever knew;—he speaks as it were in *axioms*, and what he observes is worthy to be remembered."

Sir James Mackintosh, in a letter recently received from him, laments the loss of an acquaintance to whose society he looked forward as one of the pleasures which awaited him at his return to England, and adds the following observation: "Had Mr. Opie turned his powers of mind to the study of philosophy, he would have been one of the first philosophers of the age. I was never more struck than with his original manner of thinking and expressing himself in conversation; and had he written on the subject, he would, perhaps, have thrown more light on the philosophy of his art than any man living."

Nor was Mr. Opie's intellectual superiority unappreciated by the eminent amongst my own sex.

Mrs. Inchbald has given to the world her opinion of my husband in her own interesting and energetic manner; and Mrs. Siddons must pardon me, if I relate the following circumstances. "Where is Mr. Opie?" said Mrs. Siddons, one evening at a party in B——k-street. "He is gone," was the answer. "I am sorry for it," she replied, "for I meant to have sought him out, as when I am with him, I am always sure to hear him say something which I cannot forget, or at least which ought never to be forgotten."

I have been led to dwell on Mr. Opie's great talents for conversation, and to bring forward respectable evidence to prove it, in order to draw this inference; that to him who could, in society, "*speak in axioms*," and express original ideas in an impressive and forcible manner, it could not be a very difficult task to conquer the only obstacle to his success as an author, namely, want of the habit of writing, and to become on the subject most dear and familiar to him, a powerful and eloquent writer.

That he was such, the following work, I trust, will sufficiently testify: and I should not have thought it necessary to draw the inference mentioned above, had it not been often asserted, and by many believed, that, however the ideas contained in the lectures might be conceived by Mr. Opie, it was not by his pen that those ideas were clothed in adequate language. But the slight texture of muslin could as easily assume the consistency of velvet, as the person supposed to have assisted Mr. Opie in the composition of his lectures, have given

language to the conceptions of his mind. He who alone conceived them was alone capable of giving them adequate expression; nor could so weak and ill-founded a suspicion have ever entered into the head of any one, but for the false ideas which, as you well know, are entertained of painting and of painters in general.

There are many who set literature so much above the arts, that they would think Mr. Opie showed more ability in being able to write on painting, than in executing the finest of his pictures.

Such persons see a simple effect produced, and are wholly unconscious what compound powers are requisite to produce it. They would gaze on a portrait painted by the first masters, they would see the character, the expression, and the sort of historical effect which the picture exhibited; but they would turn away and still consider the artist as a mere painter, and not at all suspect that he could think, or argue, or write. Here let me declare in the most solemn and unequivocal manner, that to my certain knowledge, Mr. Opie never received from any human being the slightest assistance whatever in the composition of his lectures; I believe I read to myself some parts of them as they were given at the Royal Institution before they were delivered, and afterwards I had the honour of reading them to the Bishop of Durham, who said when I had concluded: "You were known before as a great painter, Mr. Opie; you will now be known as a great writer also:" but the four finished lectures on which he employed all the powers of his mind, and which he delivered as professor of painting at the Royal Academy, I never even saw, but he read each

of them to me when finished, and two of them I believe to Mr. Landseer, the engraver, and Mr. Phillips, the academician. Assistance from any one Mr. Opie would have despised, even if he had needed it; as none but the most contemptible of human beings can endure to strut forth in borrowed plumes, and claim a reputation which they have not conscientiously deserved. Such meanness was unworthy a man like Mr. Opie, and the lectures themselves are perhaps a fatal proof not only of his eagerness to obtain reputation as a lecturer, but also of the laborious industry by which he endeavoured to satisfy that eagerness.

To the toils of the artist during the day (and he never was idle for a moment), succeeded those of the writer every evening; and from the month of September 1806, to February 1807, he allowed his mind no rest, and scarcely indulged himself in the relaxation of a walk, or the society of his friends. To the completion therefore of the lectures in question his life perhaps fell an untimely sacrifice; and in the bitterness of regret, I wish they had never been even thought of. But they were written, were delivered, and highly were they admired. They serve to form another wreath for his brow. Let it then be suffered to bloom there, nor let the hand of ignorance, inadvertence, envy, or malignity, attempt to pluck it thence!

Mr. Northcote, in his character of Mr. Opie, has mentioned his filial piety, and I can confirm what he has asserted by the testimony of my own experience: indeed all who knew him, would readily admit, that the strength of his affections equalled that of his intellect. I have heard Mr. Opie say, that

when he first came to London he was considered as a sort of *painting Chatterton*. But it was not in talent only that he resembled the unfortunate Chatterton. He resembled him also in attachment to his family.

Chatterton, if we may judge by his letters, never looked forward to any worldly good without telling his mother and sister that he hoped to share it with them; and no sooner was Mr. Opie settled in London, with a prospect of increasing employment, than some of his first earnings were transmitted by him to his mother; and his sister, whom he tenderly loved, and who well deserved his affection, was invited to the metropolis, to enjoy the popularity and partake of the prosperity of her brother. Here, unhappily for Chatterton, the resemblance between them ceases, for he possessed not the industry, the patience, the prudence, and the self-denial of Mr. Opie. The mother and sister whom Chatterton held so dear were left by his wretched and selfish suicide in the same state of poverty they had ever known; while those of my husband were enabled by his well-deserved success to know the comforts of a respectable competence. Mr. Opie's father died, I believe, at a very early period of his son's life; but he lived to witness the dawning of his genius, and to feel his affections, as well as his pride gratified by seeing that genius first exhibited in a likeness of *himself*.—Perhaps the following anecdote may not be unacceptable to my readers; but I cannot expect them to experience from it the same interest which it produced in me, especially as I cannot narrate it in the simple yet impressive and dramatic manner in which my poor sister used to tell it,

while, in order to beguile her grief for her brother's loss, she felt with never satisfied pride and delight on his talents and his worth. One Sunday afternoon, while his mother was at church, Mr. Opie, then a boy of ten or eleven years old, fixed his materials for painting a little kitchen, directly opposite the parlour, where his father sat reading the Bible. He went on working till he had finished everything but the head, and when he came to that, he frequently ran into the parlour to look up in his father's face. He repeated this extraordinary interruption so often, that the old man became quite angry, and threatened to correct him severely if he did the like again. This was exactly what the young artist wanted. He wished to paint his father's eyes when lighted up, and sparkling with indignation, and having obtained his end, he quietly resumed his task. He had completed his picture before his mother's return from church, and on her entering the house, he set it before her. She knew it instantly, but, ever true to her principles, she was very angry with him for having painted on a Sunday, thereby profaning the Sabbath-day. The child, however, was so elated by his success, that he disregarded her remonstrance, and hanging fondly round her neck, he was alive only to the pleasure she had given him by owning the strength of the resemblance. At this moment his father entered the room, and recognizing his own portrait immediately, highly approved his son's amusement during the afternoon (parental pride conquering habitual piety awhile), and exhibited the picture, with ever new satisfaction, to all who came to the house, while the story of his anger,

at interruptions so happily excused and accounted for, added interest to his narrative, and gratified still more the pride of the artist.

Mr. Opie used to speak of his mother with the most touching enthusiasm. He described her as the most perfect of human beings; as the most mild, most just, and most disinterested of women; and I believe that scarcely any one who knew her would have thought this description an exaggerated one. He loved to relate little instances of the sacred love of justice which led her, regardless of the partialities of a parent, to decide even against her own children, when as criminals they appeared before her, and were in the slightest degree culpable; and these stories always ended in recollections of her tender care of him during his feeble childhood, of the gloves and great coat warmed at the winter's fire against he went to school; and while he related them with a glistening eye, and a feeling of grateful affection, I never found the story, though often told, a tedious one, and used to feel the tie that bound me to him strengthened by the narration. This parent, so tenderly beloved, was spared the misery of surviving her son, and breathed her last in perfect possession of her faculties, and in all the cheering hopes of the pious, in May, 1805, at the advanced age of ninety-two.

Mr. Northcote has also mentioned Mr. Opie's READINESS TO FORGIVE INJURIES, and I could bring many instances to confirm this observation. Such indeed was his extreme placability, that it was sometimes with difficulty he could prevent himself from showing he had forgiven an offence, even before the offender could exhibit tokens of contrition; and his anger had

had always subsided long ere that self-respect which every one ought to preserve allowed him to prove by his conduct that it had done so. A kind word, and an affectionate shake by the hand, had always such power to banish from his mind the remembrance of a wrong committed against him, that I have seen him by such means so totally deprived even of salutary caution, as to be willing to confide again, where he knew his confidence had been unworthily betrayed. Such a power of forgiving and forgetting injuries as this, is, I fear, a rare virtue, though forcibly enjoined by our Saviour's precepts and example: but Mr. Opie's entire FREEDOM FROM VANITY of any kind is a still rarer quality. He was so slow to commend, and panegyric on the works of contemporary artists was so sparingly given by him, that it was natural for some persons to suppose him actuated by the feelings of professional jealousy: but it is more generous, and I am fully convinced more *just*, to think this sluggishness to praise was merely the result of such a *high* idea of excellence in his art, as made him not easily satisfied with efforts to obtain it; and surely he who was never led by vanity or conceit, to be contented with his *own* works, could not be expected to show great indulgence to the works of others.

During the nine years that I was his wife, I never saw him satisfied with any one of his productions, and often, very often have I seen him entering my sitting-room, and throwing himself in an agony of despondence on the sofa, exclaim, "I am the most stupid of created beings, and I never, never shall be a painter as long as I live."

But while he was thus painfully alive to his own deficiencies, and to

those of others, he was equally sensible of the excellencies of his rivals; and it was from him, and his nice and candid discrimination of their respective merits, that I learned to appreciate the value of an exhibition. He used to study at Somerset House, when the pictures were hung up, with more persevering attention and thirst for improvement than was ever exhibited perhaps by the lowest student in the schools; and, on his return, I never heard him expatiate on his own excellencies, but sorrowfully dwell on his own defects, while he often expressed to me his envy of certain powers in art which other painters were masters of, and which he feared he should never be able to obtain. Sometimes he used to relate to me the flattering observations made to him on his own pictures; but as it was to ME ONLY, and in the most simple and careless manner possible, I felt convinced that he did so more to gratify me than himself.

To prove how completely he was above that littleness of mind which leads some men to be jealous even of being supposed under an obligation to those they hold most dear, I shall venture to relate the following circumstance, at the risk of exposing myself to the imputation of vanity, while endeavouring to prove how much that weakness was unknown to Mr. Opie. When Mr. Opie became again a husband, he found it necessary, in order to procure indulgences for a wife whom he loved, to make himself popular as a portrait-painter, and in that productive and difficult branch of the art, female portraiture. He therefore turned his attention to those points, which he had before been long in the habit of neglecting; and he laboured earnestly

to correct certain faults in his portraits, which he had been sometimes too negligent to amend. Hence, his pictures in general soon acquired a degree of grace and softness, to which they had of late years been strangers. In consequence of this, an academician highly respectable as a man and admirable as an artist, came up to him at the second exhibition after he married, and complimented him on one of his female portraits, saying: "We never saw any thing like this in you before, Opie—this must be owing to your wife." On his return, he repeated this conversation to me; and added in the kindest manner, that if his brother artists would but allow that he *did* improve, he was very willing that they *should attribute the improvement to his wife.*

Once, and once only, did I see his firm and manly mind at all overset by public applause; and that was on the night when he first lectured at the Academy. His countenance, when I met him on his return, told me of his success, before I heard it from his companions, Sir F. Bourgeois, and Sir W. Beechey, who accompanied him home, and who seemed to enjoy the triumph which they described. The next morning he told me that he had passed a very restless night: "for, indeed," said he, "I was so *elated*, that I could not sleep."

It was this freedom from vanity that led him to love and to seek the society of the literary and the learned. As he was no egotist, he had no petty wish to be the first man in company, and sought society not in order to shine in it, but to be instructed and amused, he feared not to encounter "the proud man's contumely," if that

proud man were really capable of affording him amusement and instruction. He had not received a classical education himself, and he was therefore desirous of profiting by the remarks of those who possessed that advantage; he knew he had not read much, he was therefore honourably ambitious to associate with men who had read more: but such were the powers of his memory, that he remembered all he had read; and Milton, Shakespeare, Dryden, Pope, Gray, Cowper, Hudibras, Burke, and Dr. Johnson, he might, to use a familiar expression, be said to know by heart. He knew that he had no pretensions to what is called learning,—though he perfectly understood the French language, and was not wholly ignorant either of Italian or of Latin;—but his self-love never shrank from association with learned men. The epithet of pedant, applied to a scholar, had no power to frighten him from the society of scholars; for he always sought to see men and things as they *were*, not as they were *said* to be: besides, his observation had told him that, true as the shadow to the form, some lessening epithet always attaches itself to the highly gifted of both sexes, whether justly or unjustly, and that the possessors of talents are always called eccentric, conceited, or satirical, while the possessors of learning are prejudged to be arrogant, pedantic, and overbearing.

But where such an imputation was well founded, it was of no importance to Mr. Opie; he was conscious that he aimed at no competition with the learned; while with a manly simplicity, which neither feared contempt nor courted applause, he has often, even in such company, made observations, originating

ginating in the native treasures of his own mind, which learning could not teach, and which learning alone could not enable its possessor to appreciate. But, while he sought and valued the society of a Dr. Parr, he shrunk with mingled taste and pride from that of the half-learned,—men whom he denominated *word-catchers*,—men, more eager and more able to detect a fault in grammar, than to admire the original thoughts which such defective language expressed. He felt that amongst persons of that description he could neither be understood nor valued, and therefore he was at once too proud and too humble to endeavour to please them: while he must also have been conscious that, where he was likely to be judged with candour, and genius was valued before learning, he made all prejudice against his want of birth, of a classical education, and of the graces of manner, vanish before the powers of his intellect, and the impressive force of his observations. But there was also *another* class of men with whom he was unwilling to converse. It has been observed of some one, that he was such an enemy to prejudice, that he might be said to be prejudiced against prejudice: and Mr. Opie was so certain that to some descriptions of clever men he could never be an object of interest, from his want of external polish and classical attainments, that I have often undergone the mortification of observing him remain silent, while flippancy was loquacious; and of seeing the tinsel of well-fashioned, but superficial, fluency, obtain that notice which was more justly due to the sterling, though in the opinion of some, perhaps, the rugged ore of his conversation. But certain it is, that the republic of letters and of arts has

an aristocratic bias; and many of its members are of such sybaritic habits, such fastidious delicacy, and have such a decided preference for the rich, the polished, and the high-born members of its body, that a man of plain, simple, and unobtrusive manners, depending only on his character and his genius for respect, is not likely to be much the object of their notice.

I do not know whether the following anecdote be a proof of the presence of pride in Mr. Opie, or of the absence of vanity,—but I shall relate it without further comment. We were one evening in a company consisting chiefly of men who possessed rare mental endowments, and considerable reputation; but who were led by high animal spirits and a consciousness of power to animadvert on their absent acquaintance, whether intellectual or otherwise, with an unsparing and ingenious severity which I have rarely seen equalled, and even the learned, the witty, and the agreeable, were set up like so many nine-pins only to be bowled down again immediately. As we kept early hours, I knew that we should probably be the first to go away; and I sat in dread of the arrival of twelve o'clock. At length it came, and I received the usual sign from Mr. Opie; but to go and leave ourselves at the mercy of those who remained, was a trial that I shrank from; and in a whisper I communicated my fears to my husband, and my wish to remain longer in consequence of them. An angry look, and a desire expressed aloud that I should get ready to go, was all the answer that I received; and I obeyed him. When we were in the street, he said: “I never in my life acted from a motive so unworthy as that of fear; and this”

“ was

was a fear so contemptible, that I should have scorned to have acted upon it; and I am really ashamed of you." No wonder—I was ashamed of myself.

That a feeling so unworthy as a fear of this nature had no power to influence Mr. Opie, I can bring another instance to prove. Some years ago, a gentleman called on Mr. Opie, from motives of friendship, to inform him that a person whose name I shall not mention, the editor of some magazine, now no more remembered, was going to publish in his next number a very severe abusive memoir of him, and hinted that it might be advisable for Mr. Opie to take measures to prevent the publication, showing him at the same time a number already published, which contained a similar memoir of an eminent and highly respected actor, and was an alarming proof, as the gentleman thought, of the writer's powers. Mr. Opie perused the memoir, and, returning it to his friend, coolly observed, that if that was all the person could do, he was very welcome to say any thing of him that he chose; but that he never had condescended, nor ever would condescend, under any circumstances whatever, to put a stop, by bribe or menace, to any thing of the kind. For the exact words which he used on this occasion, I will not answer; but I am sure that such was the sentiment which he expressed; and I shall here take the liberty of observing that while he scorned, by bribe or menace, to avert printed calumny against him, he also scorned to obtain, by bribe of any kind, a printed eulogium. For his fame, *latterly* at least, he was indebted to *himself* alone:—by no puffs, no paragraphs, did he endeavour to obtain public

notice; and I have heard him with virtuous pride declare, that, whether his reputation were great or small, it was self-derived, and he was indebted for it to no exertions but those of his own industry and talents.

Mr. Opie was as free from prejudice on every point, as he was from vanity; I mean that he never espoused an opinion without well weighing both sides of the question, and was not led by his personal preferences or hatreds to prejudge any man, any measures, or any works. For instance:—When Mr. Burke's splendid work on the French Revolution was published, he read it with delight, and imbibed most of the political opinions of its author: but as soon as he heard that a powerful writer had appeared on the other side of the question, he was eager to read what might be said in opposition to Mr. Burke, truth being his only object on all occasions. I think no stronger instance than this can be given of the love of fair inquiry, which was a leading feature in Mr. Opie's mind; because, when that celebrated book appeared, it became a sort of religion, and those who professed its doctrines thought there was no political salvation for those who did not. And Mr. Opie had caught the enthusiasm, had imbibed the convictions which that eloquent work inspired; still he would not condemn the author of the Rights of Man unread, but felt the propriety and the justice of judging with his own eyes and understanding before he passed a definitive sentence. Strange is it, to the eye of reason, that conduct like this, apparently so natural and so easy, should make part of a man's panegyric, as if it were an act of uncommon virtue; yet those who have at all

all accustomed themselves to study the habits and motives of mankind in general, will own that the above-mentioned conduct was of the *rarest kind*; and that there are so many who are too indolent, or too prejudiced, to read, or to inquire on certain subjects and concerning certain people, that they attribute to writers and to sects, both in politics and religion, opinions and designs which it never entered into their heads to conceive of; and, taught by prejudice and aversion, believe that on some points ignorance is graceful, and inveteracy becoming. Different was the opinion, and different the practice, of Mr. Opie. He seemed to consider a prejudice and an enemy as the same thing, and to think it as desirable to get rid of the one as to subdue the other. But though all Mr. Opie's opinions might not be just opinions, whatever they were, they were the result of toil and investigation. *He* might, like others, occasionally mistake weeds for flowers; and bring them home, and carefully preserve them as such: but the weeds were gathered by his own hands, and he had at least by his labour deserved that they should be valuable acquisitions.

On no subject did Mr. Opie evince more generosity, and liberality of mind, than in his opinions respecting women of talents, especially those who had dared to cultivate the powers which their Maker had bestowed on them, and to become candidates for the pleasures, the pangs, the rewards, and the penalties of authorship. This class of women never had a more zealous defender than my husband against the attacks of those less liberal than himself. He did not lay it down as a positive axiom, that a female writer must fail in

every duty that is most graceful and becoming in woman, and be an offensive companion, a negligent wife, and an inattentive mother. Idleness, in both sexes, was the fault that he was most violent against; and there was no employment, consistent with delicacy and modesty, that he wished a woman to be debarred from, after she had fulfilled the regular and necessary duties of her sex and her situation: nor, if authorship did not lead a woman to disregard and undervalue the accomplishments and manners of her own sex, or to be forward and obtrusive in company, did he think it just and candid to affix to such a woman, the degrading epithets of unfeminine, or masculine.

When our marriage took place, he knew that my most favourite amusement was writing; and he always encouraged, instead of checking, my ambition to become an acknowledged author. Our only quarrel on the subject was, not that I wrote so much, but that I did not write *more* and *better*: and to the last hour of my existence I shall deplore those habits of indolence which made me neglect to write, while it was in my power to profit by his criticisms and advice; and when by employing myself more regularly in that manner, I should have been sure to receive the proudest and dearest reward of woman, — the approbation of a husband at once the object of her respect and of her love.

But had Mr. Opie been inclined to that mean and jealous egotism which leads some men to dislike even good sense in our sex, an aversion originating probably in their being *self-judged*, and desirous of shrinking from a competition in which they know that they could not

not be victorious, still, it was impossible for him to find a rival amongst women; for, if ever there was an understanding which deserved in all respects the proud and just distinction of a MASCULINE understanding, it was that of Mr. Opie. In many men, though of high talents and excellent genius, there are to be seen *womanish* weaknesses, as they are called, and littlenesses, the result of vanity and egotism, that debase and obscure the manliness of their intellect. But the intellect of Mr. Opie had such a masculine vigour about it, that it never yielded for a moment to the pressure of a weakness; but kept on with such a firm, untired, undeviating step toward the goal of excellence, that it was impossible for the delicate feet of woman to overtake it in its career.

Of Mr. Opie's industry and excessive application I shall now beg leave to speak.

In one respect he had, perhaps, an advantage over most of his competitors. "Many artists," as Mr. Northcote judiciously observes, "may be said to paint to live; but *he lived to paint.*" To many, painting may be a pleasure, and is a profession; but in him it was a *passion*, and he was never happy but when he was employed in the gratification of it. Whenever he came to Norwich while I was on a visit to my father, I had no chance of detaining him there unless he found business awaiting him. But no society, and no situation, however honourable, and however pleasant, could long keep him from his painting-room. In the autumn of 1806 we were staying at Southill, the seat of Mr. Whitbread; and never did I see him so happy, when absent from London, as he was there; for he felt towards his host

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and hostess every sentiment of respect and admiration which it is pleasant to feel, and honourable to inspire. But though he was the object of the most kind and flattering attention, he sighed to return to London and his pursuits:—and when he had been at Southill only eight days, he said to me, on my expressing my unwillingness to go away, "Though I shall be even
"anxious to come hither again,
"recollect that I have been idle
"eight days."

But his art was not only his passion, it was also his pride; and whatever had a tendency to exalt painting and its professors in the eyes of the world, was a source of gratification to him. He used often to expatiate on the great classical attainments of Mr. Fuseli, whose wit he admired, and whose conversation he delighted in; but I have often thought that one cause of the pleasure which he derived from mentioning that gentleman's attainments was, his conviction that the learning of Mr. Fuseli was an honour to his profession, and tended to exalt it in the opinion of society. I saw the same sort of exultation in him, when Mr. Hoppner and Mr. Shce became candidates for literary reputation:—he loved to see the tie between poetry and painting drawn closer and closer (a tie which he felt to exist, though it was not generally allowed); and I well remember that, while he read the well-told tales of the one, and the excellent poem of the other, he seemed to feel a pride in them as the works of *painters*, and to rejoice that their authors united, in their own persons, the sister and correponding arts.

But to return to Mr. Opie's industry.

It was not only from inclination, but from principle, that he was industrious: he thought it vicious for any one to be satisfied in art with aught less than excellence, and knew that excellence is not to be obtained by convulsive starts of application, but by continued and daily perseverance; not by the alternately rapid and faint step of the hare, but by the slow yet sure and incessant pace of the tortoise. He required not the incitement of a yearly and public competition for fame to make him studious and laborious. He would have toiled as much had there been no exhibition, and not only during the few months or weeks preceding it did he prepare for that interesting and anxious period, but the whole foregoing year was his term of preparation.

It was his opinion, that no one should either paint or write with a view merely to present bread or present reputation, nor be contented to shine, like a beauty or a fashion, the idol only of the passing hour;—he felt it right for painters and authors to experience the honourable ambition and stimulating desire to live

“In song of distant days;”

his time, therefore, his labour, and his study, were the coin with which he proudly tried to purchase immortality: nor did he ever waste the precious hours of day-light in any pursuits or engagements which had not some connection with his art or his professional interests. No wonder, then, that every successive year saw him improved in some branch of his profession:—no wonder that one of our first painters should have said of him, “Others get forward by steps, but that man by strides.”

He was always in his painting-room by half past eight in winter, and by eight o'clock in summer; and there he generally remained, closely engaged in painting, till half past four in winter, and till five in summer. Nor did he ever allow himself to be idle even when he had no pictures bespoken: and as he never let his execution rust for want of practice, he, in that case, either sketched out designs for historical or fancy pictures, or endeavoured, by working on an unfinished picture of *me*, to improve himself by incessant practice in that difficult branch of his art, female portraiture. Neither did he suffer his exertions to be paralyzed by neglect the most unexpected, and disappointment the most undeserved. Though he had a picture in the exhibition of 1801, which was universally admired, and purchased as soon as it was beheld, he saw himself, at the end of that year, and the beginning of the next, almost wholly without employment; and even my sanguine temper yielded to the trial. I began to fear that, small as our expenditure was, it must become still smaller. Not that I allowed myself to own that I desponded; on the contrary, I was forced to talk to him of hopes, and to bid him look forward to brighter prospects, as his temper, naturally desponding, required all the support possible. But gloomy and painful indeed were those three alarming months; and I consider them as the severest trial that I experienced during my married life. However, as I before observed, even despondence did not make him indolent; he continued to paint regularly as usual, and no doubt by that means increased his ability to do justice to the torrent of business which soon after set in towards

wards him, and never ceased to
ow till the day of his death.

It is probable that many young
tists, men whose habits and whose
yle are yet to form, will eagerly
ek out opportunities to study the
ctures of Mr. Opie, and endea-
ur to make his excellencies their
yn; but let them not overlook
e legacy, the more valuable lega-
r which he has bequeathed to
udents, and even proficient in
t, in the powerful example of his
e. Such, it appears, was his ap-
lication, that it would have in-
red ability and renown, even had
s powers been of a less superior
nd; and such were his economy
d self-denial, that they would
ve secured independence even
ere the means of obtaining it
ere slender and uncertain. For
e gratifications of vanity, and for
e pomps of life, Mr. Opie had no
clination; therefore he could not
said to have merit in not trying
indulge in them. But though
s tastes were simple, and he loved
at may be denominated the
eap pleasures of existence, read-
g, conversation, an evening walk,
her for the sake of exercise or
r the study of picturesque effect,
ll, there were pleasures of a more
pensive sort, for which he ear-
stly longed, but in which his
ell-principled economy forbade
m to indulge; I mean the pur-
ase of pictures and of books.
at till he had acquired *a certain*
m, always the object of his in-
stry,—a sum that would, he
asted, make him independent of
e world, he was resolved to deny
mself every indulgence that was
ot absolutely necessary: for he
runk with horror from the idea
incurring debts or pecuniary
obligation: and as he never squan-
red any thing on unnecessary

wants, he was always able to dis-
charge every debt as it was incur-
red, whether of the day or of the
week, and to meet the exigencies
of the moment, not only for him-
self, but sometimes for others less
provident, less self-denying, and
less fortunate than he was.

He was temperate in most of his
habits. Dinner parties, if they
consisted of persons whose society
he valued, he was always willing
to join. Still, his habits and his
taste were so domestic in their na-
ture, that he, on the whole, pre-
ferred passing his evenings at home,
to joining any society abroad; and
he employed his hours from tea to
bed-time either in reading books
of instruction or amusement, in
studying prints from the best an-
cient and modern masters, or in
sketching designs for pictures of
various descriptions. Not unfre-
quently did he allow himself the
relaxation of reading a novel, even
if it were not of the first class: for
he was above the petty yet com-
mon affectation of considering that
sort of reading as beneath any per-
sons but fools and women. And
if his fondness for works of that
kind was a weakness, it was one
which he had in common with
Mr. Fox and Mr. Porson. But
it was with great difficulty I could
on any occasion prevail upon him
to accompany me either to public
places, or into private parties of a
mixed and numerous kind; yet
when at the theatre he was inte-
rested and amused, and still more
so at the opera, as he delighted in
Italian music and Italian singing;
and such was the quickness of his
ear, and so excellent was his musi-
cal memory, that in common he
accurately remembered a tune that
pleased him, on only once hearing
it.—He played the flute pleasingly;
F 2 and

and though he had not the smallest pretension to voice, he sung comic songs to me occasionally; and repeated comic verses with such humorous and apt expression, that I have often told him, I was convinced, had a troop of comedians visited his native place before he conceived his decided predilection for painting, that he would have been an actor instead of a painter; and probably would in time have been, in some kinds of comedy, at the head of his profession. He had also no inconsiderable power of mimicry; but as in the rainbow all the colours of the prism are assembled at once, though the brightest and deepest only are distinctly visible; so, where there is one distinguished and superior talent, the person thus gifted unites and possesses usually all the rest, though in an inferior degree.

But to go back to his economy and self-denial.—They were often such as to make me rashly imagine them to be wholly unnecessary: still, I respected so highly his motives for the privations to which he subjected both me and himself, that for the most part I submitted to them cheerfully, looking forward with a hope (which was not disappointed) that the time would come when our circumstances

would allow us to have more of the comforts and elegancies of life, and to receive our friends in a manner more suited to the esteem which we entertained for them. The time did come; but, unfortunately, it came too *late*. Mr. Opie was conscious that he had nearly realized the sum so long desired. I was allowed to make the long projected alterations and improvements in my own apartments, and he had resolved to indulge himself as he called it, in the luxury of keeping a horse. You may remember, my dear Sir, that when he had given over lecturing for the season, and you were requesting him to write a paper for *The Artist* against a given time, he replied that he was tired of writing, that he would be a gentleman, during the spring months, keep a horse, and ride out every evening. The next time you saw him, he was on sick couch, and the object of affectionate solicitude to all who surrounded him! He lived not to enjoy the independence which he had so virtuously toiled to obtain, but was cut off in the prime of every possession and expectation, and in that year both of his married life and mine, which I can with truth aver was the most prosperous and the most happy.

CUSTOMS AND MANNERS OF NATIONS.

SCENERY, BUILDINGS, AND INHABITANTS OF MYSORE.

[From Lord VALENTIA's Travels.]

FEBRUARY 23.—I had found it impossible to leave Madras till the evening, in consequence of an engagement to dine with General Stuart; but by ten I quitted my house, and settled myself for the night in my palanquin. The first set of bearers was excellent, and carried me twenty-six miles in five hours, during which time I had not been once interrupted by the usual demand of my passport; the second set was indifferent, so that I did not reach Conjeveram till nine on the 24th.

February 24.—The country after I awoke was flat and sandy, with frequent jungle, till I approached the town, where the paddy fields were cultivating. I was met at the entrance into the town by the peons of the Collector, and conducted to a house of his where he occasionally resides, and where he had sent servants to wait my arrival, and procure for me every thing that I might want. Here I staid some hours, during which time I received a visit from the Aumil. In defiance of a very

pleasant breeze, the thermometer stood in the room at 89°.

The pagodas here are large, and of the same shape as at Tanjore; the tanks are lined with stone, and in good repair; the streets are wide, and cross each other at right angles, with a range of cocoa-nut trees on each side, and the whole town has the appearance of prosperity. I was much struck with the chariots employed in carrying the chief deity of the place, on his annual visitation, to another pagoda: they were much larger than any I had seen, and, though disproportioned, must be handsome when decorated with coloured ornaments, as drawn by Mr. Salt. At one I again set off. In passing the great pagoda, dedicated to Iswara, the priests and numerous dancing-girls were drawn out to pay their compliments. The latter were very numerous, and some of them pretty. The heat of the sun was extremely oppressive, the thermometer being at 96°; we were therefore able to go but slowly. Villages are thinly scattered,
the

the jungle is more frequent, and the soil a dry gravelly sand, which being raised by the wind, nearly suffocated me. The choultries erected by pious natives, to give shade, and often subsistence, to travellers, are frequent, but falling into decay. Their greatest enemy is the banian tree: the seed is carried by birds to the top, and in the rainy season it finds nourishment between the large stones, where it gradually takes root; separating them as it increases in thickness, till at length the building becomes a heap of ruins.

Around most of the villages are the remains of a hedge, with a rampart, and stone bastions at the gateway and angles. These were erected to protect the inhabitants from the incursions of Tippoo's predatory horse, who devastated the Carnatic, and carried off the inhabitants. He even injured the noble tank at Cauverypauk, which is said to be the largest in the Carnatic. It is, however, now repaired, and again fertilizes a large tract of country. As I passed it I observed the ruins of a fort; but nothing appeared in the town to tempt me to visit it. At half after six I reached Wallajapettah, where I changed bearers. The night was cool and refreshing. About twelve I awoke, and found myself coasting along the chain of hills that command Vellore: the road winded among vast masses of rock, and groves of the wild date, and the palmira, with here and there a small pasture.

The moon shone bright, and rendered the scene most beautiful, from the strong effect of the light and shade on the mountains. At two I reached the outer works of the pettah of Vellore, which here descend from the lofty ridge, and

wind along the valley. Within was barren and rocky. I passed the town, and reached the gate of the fort; but the sentinel refused to admit me. I was obliged to write a note with a pencil, by the light of the moon, to Colonel Campbell, the commandant, which with some difficulty I persuaded a European serjeant to carry in. After the delay of an hour I was admitted. The guards were turned out, and Colonel Campbell received me at the steps of his house, and apologized for the delay I had suffered.

February 25.—After breakfast I took a walk with Major Marriot, who has had the care of Tippoo's family since their arrival here, to see a palace or pagoda, now converted into a magazine. It forms one side of the public square, in which are also the palaces of the princes, the commandant's house, and the houses of the chief inhabitants. In the front is a lofty gateway of the usual inelegant, but imposing architecture. On each side is a statue of a kind of blue stone, with four arms, which were found under ground in the interior of the building, and have been placed here by the British. After passing the gateway on the left, is a very noble apartment, supported by pillars, singularly but beautifully carved. Nothing but the patient labour of a Hindoo could have finished so minute a work. Each pillar is of a single stone: those in front are composed partly of figures on horseback, carved with considerable spirit; the others are on every side divided into square compartments, many containing the different adventures of Crishna with the Gopi's; and the very remarkable mythological tradition of his treading on the serpent's head;

head: on others are the many fantastic figures to which the Hindoo religion has given birth. Major Marriot very kindly presented me with drawings of several of the pillars, which it was difficult at that time to examine, from the quantity of stones that were piled within. He also inquired for me from the descendants of the builders, what tradition they have concerning the founder; but all I could learn was, that it was built by a Naig of the place, about four hundred years ago. The musnud was placed in the back part of the building; it was about twelve feet square, and rested on the back of a prodigious tortoise.

Opposite to this apartment, which was probably the durbar of the Prince, is another, similar in size, but of a different architecture, and more plain. Facing the great gateway are several small pagodas of the Tanjore architecture, surrounded by a wall. These seem much more ancient than the others. As I returned, I observed several figures of Rama and his monkey generals on the inside of the gateway. A figure also was pointed-out to me, which was said to be that of the founder. Nothing could be more natural than that he should wish to immortalize himself as the framer of so beautiful a building. The delicacy of the workmanship certainly surpasses any thing I have seen.

The fort of Vellore has been chosen for the prison of Tippoo's family, from its being one of the strongest places in India. The walls are built of very large stones, and have bastions and round towers at short distances. A *fausse-bray* lines the wall between them, and with its embattled rampart, and small overhanging square towers,

produces a very handsome effect. A deep and wide ditch, chiefly cut out of the solid rock, surrounds the whole fort, except at one entrance, where there was a causeway, according to the Indian system. They are now removing this, and constructing the more certain defence of a draw-bridge in its stead. In addition to the usual defence, the ditch is filled with alligators of a very large size. With these, a serjeant of the Scotch brigade engaged in battle for a small wager. He entered the water, and was several times drawn under by the ferocious animals. He, however, escaped at last, with several severe wounds. A glacis has been formed where the ditch is narrow. The whole reminded me very much of the architecture of the ancient English baronial castles.

The fort of Vellore is so completely commanded from the hills, that a six-pounder can from any of them throw a shot over it. On the three loftiest summits are three forts: one only has water, and is too large; did it occupy only the summit, it might be easily rendered impregnable; and till it is taken, no attack can be made on the forts below. Hyder was aware of this, and when he besieged Vellore, he, by great exertions, got some pieces of cannon up to a fourth point, from which he made a breach in the small fort, and intended to have stormed it in the night; but was prevented by a drummer deserting, and giving him notice that just within the breach was a deep pit, into which his whole party would otherwise have fallen and perished. He was, however, obliged to commence a new attack, and before he could succeed, Sir Eyre Coote relieved the place. The conquest of Mysore has rendered Vellore

Vellore of little importance, so that, had it not been for the accommodation of Tippoo's family, it would most probably have been permitted to go to decay.

The hills render Vellore extremely sultry. The thermometer was 86° in the shade; yet on returning from my walk, I found the British officers playing at cricket in the great square. No wonder if the liver is so frequently affected! I should have been very happy to have seen Tippoo's sons, but my wish to arrive as soon as possible at Mangalore, made me hasten my departure. I sent my compliments, and expressed my regret that I could not have the pleasure of paying them a visit. From Major Marriot I received every information respecting them that I wished to obtain. They occupy the ancient palace, to which very large additions were made previously to their arrival. The public apartments are handsome, and common to all of them; but within, each has his own. They are treated with great attention, and have every indulgence that is consistent with the safe custody of their persons. At present they are totally deprived of the liberty of quitting the fort, and even at each door of the palace people are placed to watch them. These strict precautions have only been used since the attempt to liberate them.

There are in all, twelve sons and eight daughters of Tippoo's. Futty Hyder, the eldest, but illegitimate son, has twelve or fourteen children. He, as well as his three next brothers, have 50,000 rupees each per annum; a much larger sum than he really received during his father's life-time, though he was nominally in possession of a larger jaghire. Yet probably he has

lost more than any by the deposing of his family; for though Tippoo certainly did not intend him to succeed to the musnud, yet, as he was the only one known to the troops, and was by no means unpopular, it seems likely that he would have seized the succession.

Futty Hyder conducts himself with the utmost propriety, as indeed do all of them, except Sultan Moiz-ud-Deen, the eldest legitimate son, who gives Major Marriot a great deal of trouble by his misconduct. He spends all the money he can procure in buying dancing-girls, runs in debt, and even lately murdered a female who had been employed in the harem as a servant. All the sons, except the four eldest, have only 25,000 rupees per annum, which they receive on their being fourteen years old. The females are nearly eight hundred in number, including several of Hyder's. Those of rank have each a separate room, and a small allowance of pocket-money; but the whole harem is supplied with provisions, as in the time of Tippoo.

In order that they might be able to converse with Major Marriot, who had the whole arrangement of their affairs, without a breach of Mussulman propriety, they adopted him into the family, and, consequently, call him brother. He assures me that they are happy and satisfied. Indeed, they have most certainly suffered no loss, as their lot is much better than it otherwise would have been under any successor of Tippoo's. They come from different parts of the world, and each furnishes her apartment according to the fashion of her own country. Major Marriot has therefore the singular knowledge of the manners of the harem of Persia, of Delhi, and

and of many other Mussulmaun Kingdoms. The allowance made by Tippoo Sultaun to his family, and that of Hyder, including the whole expenses of their maintenance, were little more than a lac of pagodas; yet the British have liberally appropriated two lacs for the use of the prisoners, which is found to be more than sufficient; though if all the sons should increase their families like Futtty Hyder, it will be difficult to say, what will be requisite. I pity most the young females, many of whom were betrothed before the death of their father, but have not yet been permitted to go to their husbands. It may be dangerous to extend the alliance of a family, which has been always looked up to as the head of the Mussulmaun religion in the East.

In a small habitation near the palace resides a brother of Tippoo, who is deranged. Major Marriot had much trouble in removing him from Seringapatam. He intoxicated himself with bang, and sallied forth at the head of his women, declaring that he would not go. His poor women fell at the feet of the Major, conjuring him not to put their master to death. At length he was forced into a palanquin by two stout eunuchs, and care was taken that he should have no more bang.

I doubted whether it would not at first have been more advisable to remove the whole of the Hyder family to Calcutta, where they were unknown, and where the citadel would easily have lodged them; for, independently of any danger of these young tigers becoming again mischievous, their being at Vellore had at least the inconvenience of keeping 3000 men idle, who might otherwise have been

usefully employed. It is thought advisable to have a part of the garrison Europeans, which renders the evil still greater.

The fatal events which have since occurred, prove that the danger was greater than I then supposed; and the prudent consequence has been the removal of the males of Tippoo's family to Calcutta. — I trust that the dreadful massacre, which took place on the 10th of July, 1806, has awakened the Governors of India to a due sense of the dangers that surround them, from the determined hostility of all the Mussulmaun princes of that country. There can be no doubt that Tippoo's sons, particularly Moiz-ud-Deen, were deeply implicated in the conspiracy; and it appears equally certain, that the promptitude of Colonel Gillespie alone saved us from a religious war throughout the Carnatic.

It must not be forgotten, that a similar attempt was made in Bengal by Vizier Ali. Though the danger was at that time obviated, yet the seeds of hostility still remain, and can be removed only by the vigilance of government, and a scrupulous attention to the prejudices of the Hindoos, who form a majority of the population of the country. The enmity and attempts of Tippoo's family must have proved completely unavailing, had we not absurdly furnished them with arguments to mislead the minds of the sepoys, by persisting in a measure, which had created such general discontent. Nothing indeed could be more unfounded than the insinuations, that there was any intention of obliging the sepoys to become Christians: it is even probable that the turban itself, which was proposed to be generally introduced among our native

tive troops, was in reality not contrary to their religious customs; nevertheless, when it was discovered that the objects of government had been misrepresented, and that this very turban had been stated, and generally believed, to be only a preparatory step to more serious innovations, it is most incredible that the Governor of Madras should, for a moment, have delayed to recall the order. General Cradock seems to have felt the danger: and had it not been for an unfortunate confidence in officers, whose long period of service, and greater experience, he naturally concluded must have given them a fuller knowledge of the native character, he would probably have prevented all discontent, by leaving the dress of the sepoys as he found it.

It would have appeared strange in any former time that all these hazards should have been braved for a circumstance of no importance whatsoever; the alteration in the form of a turban, which was neither to protect the wearer from injury, nor even inconvenience, but was merely to make him look prettier on parade. Is it not mortifying to behold our gallant soldiers much more frequently regarded as playthings, to gratify the vanity and caprice of their colonels, than as men destined to defend them by their exertions?

I cannot quit this subject, without observing, that if any alteration in the dress of the sepoy is necessary, I am convinced that it may be easily carried into effect by an application to the Brahmins, on whose recommendation it would be adopted by all the Hindoos, not only without a murmur, but even with satisfaction.

The thermometer in the even-

ing was 89° in the shade. The season is so far advanced, that the night is the only time in which travelling is supportable; I therefore determined to take advantage of it to reach the Gauts, hoping that when on the Table land, the heat would not be so great. The gentlemen of the fort continued their kind attentions to the last, and left me fifteen palanquin boys, as being better than any I could hire. At nine I set off, and travelled most comfortably all night.

February 26.—At a quarter before six I awoke, and found myself at Sautghur, distant thirty miles from Vellore. The situation is picturesque, being surrounded with rocks, covered in part by brushwood. As the next stage up the Gaut was a laborious one, I had sent on bearers from Madras, at an expense of one hundred and twenty rupees for thirty miles, the most expensive stage that I had yet travelled in India. They were ready, but the coolies could not be found to carry the baggage; I was therefore obliged to wait. I amused myself in the mean time by visiting the Nawaub of the Carnatic's garden, which is considered as the best in the country, and the possession of which he reserved in his treaty with the Company. Like all other Eastern gardens, it has no beauty. The trees are planted regularly, and water is conducted in small channels to the root of each, I afterwards wandered about and collected several species of seed. The agave americana grows here, and in most other places that I have passed. It is in such profusion, that it is hardly possible to suppose it could have been introduced from America. At a quarter after ten my coolies arrived: they deserved more chastisement than

than I chose to order; the thermometer, which was but 79° in the morning, being now 89° in the shade. This exposed me not only to the heat, but also to considerable delay, as the boys would not be able to get on so fast with the great weight of my palanquin. After proceeding across a plain, where I was nearly suffocated by the dust, and ascending a slight hill, I came in sight of the Gout itself, winding up the mountain. We rested a little time at a mosque near the dry bed of a river, and then began to ascend. The first part of the ascent was so steep, that I was astonished six men were able to carry me up in the heat of the mid-day sun. This pass has been widened and levelled since Mysore was conquered by the British. Artillery can now ascend it with little difficulty, which was far from the case when Lord Cornwallis made his first and unsuccessful attack on Seringapatam. The tranquillity of Mysore, and the Carnatic, by the final abolition of the Mussulmaun dynasty of Hyder, has rendered the easy communication between the two countries an object of great importance, by the facility it gives to trade. In this light only the improvement of the road is beneficial, as we shall probably never again have to convey artillery up. The hills were covered with large stones, among which grow many small trees and shrubs, with here and there a tamarind and a banian tree, of great age and size. The ascent soon became more gradual, with occasionally a small descent. At one o'clock, I stopped for a short time in a choultry. After another ascent I reached, by half past two, a wretched village, called Naikeray, where my bearers wished to

stop; but as Baitamungalum was the place to which they had been hired, and where the Rajah of Mysore had stationed the first set of his bearers, I was obliged to insist on their going on, though I really pitied them, after having exerted themselves for four hours in the heat of the day. At a quarter past three, however, I found them so tired, that it was impossible to advance, I therefore rested and dined.

The scenery had completely changed; instead of the plain which I had passed over from Madras, the whole country was undulated, with a few lofty desolate peaks before me. It appeared to be extremely barren, and I was disappointed at not seeing the extensive forests which I had expected. The thermometer was 91°. Four of my bearers were so exhausted, that I was obliged to leave them behind; but with only eight I contrived to reach Vencatagerry, where I was met by a hircarrah of the Rajah's, whom I immediately sent back to bring the boys from Baitamungalum. About three in the morning they arrived, with a very respectable well-dressed native officer, Mahommed Isack, Foojadar of Colar, who, with the Aumildar of the district, paid his compliments, and the latter presented a nazur of fruit and flowers. The flowers consisted of several strings of the blossoms of the *nyctanthes sambac*, the thread being drawn through the pipe. He put several of these round my neck, others smaller round my arms, and also presented a nosegay of the same. The scent was too powerful to allow them to continue long in the palanquin. My ignorance of the language rendered much conversation

sation impracticable: I however contrived to express my wish to proceed.

February 27.—The night was cool and pleasant; before sun-rise the thermometer was only 69°. At day-light I found myself attended by Mahommed Issack and the Aumildar on horse-back, with a few sepoy, and a body of armed peons. As I approached each village, two most harsh trumpets were sounded by men who ran before me. The inhabitants immediately came out, and the chief man, without stopping the palanquin, presented his nazur of fruit, whilst the rest made their salaams, and generally ran after me for a little time to gratify their curiosity. At a short distance from Baitamungalum the Cutwal was waiting for me, and a guard of sepoy, who attended me into the town, which is surrounded by a mud wall. The houses are many of them new, and an appearance of prosperity speaks in favour of the present government. Every village that I passed had something like a wall or fort to defend it; a strong proof that, under the Mussulmaun dynasty, property was in a very unprotected state. The country was in general well cultivated.

The Aumildar supplied me plentifully with eggs and milk, for which he refused any payment, having orders from Purneah, the Dewan of Mysore, to provide me with every thing I wanted. It was the same also with respect to my bearers, the Foojadar not permitting me to pay them, or to give them any thing, saying that Purneah would never forgive him if he did; and he watched me so closely, that I seldom was able to do it without his knowledge.

At eight I set off myself with

my usual escort. The country was flat, and the road indifferent. At short distances poles were stuck into the ground on each side; between them a string was stretched on which were suspended small branches of the mango-tree. This probably was intended as a compliment; but it also served to mark the road. The Mysore bearers were by no means equal to those I sent on from Madras; a great many were under the palanquin at once, and soon exhausted themselves.

By eleven o'clock I reached Oolcundapetta, where I found fresh bearers. Here I rested under a noble banian tree, and much enjoyed the cool water from some excellent cocoa-nuts which had been presented. In this place is a singular mass of rocks heaped on one another in a most fantastic manner. On one of the largest was a pagoda and some habitations. Walls have been carried from one to the other, so as to form a defence, and the whole is surrounded by a hedge and jungle. A few cocoa-nut trees were cultivated in the garden, but none are to be seen elsewhere. By twelve the thermometer was at 90°, and we were obliged to stop. The chief officer of each village that I passed presented me with fruit and sugar. The crowds of followers that attended them were very great; and unless from having notice of my arrival, and seeing the preparations made for my reception, they had been induced by curiosity to assemble from the neighbouring villages, the population must be much greater than in any part of Coromandel.

At one I set off, and at two came in sight of Colar, distant about a coss. Here I was met by the usual officers,

officers, and a crowd greater than any I had yet seen. They attended me into the town, and deposited me in a garden belonging to the young Rajah. It was shady and pleasant. The Foojadar being now in his capital, sent me an excellent dinner of fowls and a pillau. In the garden were cabbages, artichokes, cucumbers, and grapes, besides the usual fruits. Colar is now strong as a mud fort; it has two very lofty walls, and in the town a cavalier of stone that rises high above them. At the gates are additional works. The houses within are not numerous.

At five I departed, attended still by my friend the Foojadar, and the Aumil of the district. It was with difficulty that my usual guard of twenty sepoy's made way for me through the crowds in the pettah, which joins the fort, and is neat and populous. At the end of it I passed the tomb of Hyder's father, and the mausoleum where Hyder himself lay, till his son removed him to the Lolbaug near Seringapatam. The domes are handsome, surrounded by trees, and backed by a lofty and craggy hill, which altogether form a beautiful view. This was the birth-place of Hyder, whose rapid elevation and unquestionable talents have led to an inquiry into the origin and the former state of his family. It appears nearly certain that they were originally from Arabia, and probably of high descent; for the first who reached India about the year 1660, was on his arrival appointed Moulah of the mosque at Viziapore, and on his removal to Culbarga, was allowed to unite himself by marriage with a celebrated faquir's family, which takes its name from that place. It was a junior branch of the family, which afterwards,

on some discontent, removed from Culbarga to Sera, and entered into the service of its Soubadar. On the conquest of the Mahrattas the Soubadar was removed to Colar, which purgunnah was given him as a maintenance. In his service Futtý Naig, the father of Hyder, rose to considerable consequence, and was at length employed by the Rajah of Seringapatam, in whose service he died, and was succeeded in all his commands by his son Hyder Alli, with whose history the English reader is now well acquainted. The British government have liberally continued the allowance he made to the college of Mussulmaun priests to pray for the repose of his father's soul. They were standing at the gate to pay their compliments.

The road had lately been repaired, and was still marked by the strings of mango branches. We wound among the hills, but ascended none. The country is wild, and apparently not fertile.

At seven I received the compliments of the Aumil of Nursapore, who met me with fresh bearers, and the usual presents. I here saw neither town nor village. When the night set in, the number of torches was sufficient to dispel darkness for a considerable distance. At one I was awakened by my boys to receive the profusion of fruit brought me by the Aumil of Ouscotta, which they well knew would be theirs. He was attended by a great number of nautch-girls, and a most noisy and discordant band of trumpets and other instruments, which I had some difficulty in silencing. By some good fortune I passed Kistnarajahpore without being disturbed.

February 28.—At six the celebrated

brated town of Bangaloré was in view. The country was more naked than any I had yet seen. The pettah through which I passed is large and even yet very populous, though it suffered, of course, severely during the irruptions of Lord Cornwallis. The fort had been destroyed by Tippoo after the British retired, as he found they took it with facility, yet could keep it against any power of his. Purneah is putting it into repair, and even making it stronger than it ever was. The glacis is a fine one. I was met here by a brother-in-law of the Dewan's, who is Aumil of the district. He brought me a smaller present of fruit than any I had yet received, and treated me with much more neglect. Hearing from his servant that Major Lambton was encamped without the town, I preferred paying him a visit to going into it. I learnt from him that the Aumil was ignorant, avaricious, and totally unfit for his situation. A dispute having arisen between Major Lambton's followers and some of the town's-people, I amused myself with attending to the debate. The Aumil came in on the occasion, and without taking off his shoes; a mark of disrespect that he ought not to have shown to a person, who was considered as his sovereign's guest.

Major Lambton has been for some time employed in measuring six degrees to the north of the line within the tropic, to compare the degrees there with the degrees to the south, as measured by the Spanish and French in South America. He is extending his labours across the peninsula, which will add much to our geographical knowledge. He informs me that he found many places in the Carnatic more inaccurately laid down

than in the interior of Mysore. In placing Arcot, there was an error of nine miles. He also confirmed an observation that I had made, that within the territories of the Company, the natives are much more uncivil than in any other part of India. This is owing, I would hope, to the independence they feel from the equal protection of British law; if so, no one can regret the trifling inconveniences they may suffer in consequence. Mr. Heyne, the surgeon at the station, waited on me. I found that he had expected me, and provided for my accommodations in the palace of Hyder within the town, where there are very handsome gardens in the Asiatic style. He presented me with the seeds of several plants, and drawings of them, possessing great merit, by a native. His knowledge of botany, and his indefatigable exertions, will render the collection he is forming of the plants of the Table land of Mysore, valuable and interesting. I was much gratified by a plate of strawberries from the Sultaun's garden. It is probable that every European vegetable, and most of the fruits, might be cultivated here in perfection. The climate is now extremely pleasant, and I understand, even in summer, not liable to the hot winds which burn up every thing in the Carnatic. It is also very healthy.

After an early dinner I departed by three o'clock. My old friend the Foojadar had left me; of the Aumil I saw nothing; and had only a hircarrah of Purneah's to attend me. I passed through a country little cultivated, with much jungle, to Kingeri, which has a small mud fort in good repair, and a pettah apparently well filled with inhabitants. I was again on my way

way by six. The country was more wild, and the road more uneven. Tigers are said to be here in great abundance, but our numerous lights secured us from any attack. By twelve I reached Ramageri, and received the usual presents almost without awaking.

February 29.—At six in the morning I found myself attended by the Aumildar, who, on my opening my palanquin, presented me with the greatest quantity of fruit I had yet received: the jacks and water melons were remarkably fine. Before I could dispose of it, the Cutwal of Muddoor, to which place I was approaching, made his salaams and presents, so that my palanquin was quite loaded: I therefore began to toss the fruit among the crowd that attended, for which breach of etiquette, and want of proper dignity, I was soon punished by the clouds of dust they raised in the scramble. By ten I reached Muddien; by twelve the thermometer was 91° in the palanquin. My guard soon tired, and was left behind; we kept on however till half after one, when I reached a single house at Tooperkera.

The country from that place was extremely rocky, but in many parts cultivated. I saw several tanks, which I learnt were the works of former Rajahs, and not of the Mussulmaun dynasty. Tippoo destroyed many, but built none. After a small ascent, the plain of Mysore broke on my view, with Seringapatam in its centre. The view of the capital disappointed me much; the only conspicuous objects are the minarets of the mosque, which are neither lofty nor elegant, and a cavalier of several stories, on which the British colours were flying. At a village

two miles from the town I was met by Major Symons, who delivered me a letter, informing me that Colonel De Meuron, who commanded in Seringapatam, had prepared the palace of Tippoo for my reception. Bucherow, the deputy of Purneah in the Patana district, also met me with a very large escort, and accompanied me into the town. I was received by the different guards with presented arms; and on reaching the main guard, which is in the palace, found Colonel De Meuron, and all the officers of his regiment, waiting to receive me. After paying their compliments they attended me to the apartments of the late haughty tyrant of Mysore.

The Lolmahal, or private residence of Tippoo consists but of one square, three sides of which are divided into two stories, with a verandah of unpainted wood in front: behind were many small rooms, used by him as warehouses, but now painted and fitted up for the Resident; the fourth side consisted of a single room, the height of the whole building. It was the durbar of the tyrant, in which he sat and wrote, or received his ministers. It is a very handsome room, about seventy feet wide in front, and forty deep. The walls are painted red, with a gilt trellis-work running over it, formed by the tigers' scratch, the favourite ornament of Tippoo. Sentences from the Koran in letters of gold on a red ground, each about a foot high, run round the room as a cornice. Three rows of pillars sustain the roof, which is painted like the sides of the room. Each pillar is of a single piece of wood painted red, and highly varnished. The shape is fantastic, bulging much towards the bottom, but again

again narrowing till they join a base of black marble. Behind the durbar is a small room where the tyrant slept, when fear or anger would permit him. There are only two windows, both grated with iron, and the door is strongly secured. The only entrances into the Lolmahal are through the harem that adjoined, and through a narrow winding passage, where his fears had chained some tigers as an additional defence. When in the vicinity of Seringapatam, he never slept at any of his country palaces, but constantly returned to this more secure fortress. Tippoo seems to have been deservedly punished for his tyranny, by the fears that ever attend it. He knew that his oppression had alienated the affections of a large proportion of his subjects, whose innocent prejudices his bigotry had driven him to violate in the most cruel manner, not only by destroying their temples, and depriving the Brahmins of their revenues, but by violating their daughters, and forcing them to conform to his religion. We need not therefore wonder if he felt that every precaution was necessary for his personal safety.

I cannot help expressing my astonishment that any one should have been found to approve the conduct, and praise the character of Tippoo; yet in the public meetings of the India Company it has been asserted that he was not a tyrant. If he was not, I confess myself incapable of conceiving any character to which that title can be affixed. The internal government of his country was most oppressive, having placed unlimited confidence in a set of Aumils, who had no other recommendation than that they were Mussulmauns, and who, being bound by no oaths, not

only embezzled a large proportion of the revenue, but plundered the unfortunate Hindoos without control; and even carried their depravity so far as to make secret inquiries respecting the females of their districts, and if they heard of any remarkable for beauty, to have them forcibly removed to their zenanas. As there was no regular police throughout the country, some districts were generally in rebellion; and it was not an unfrequent circumstance for the Patels, or head men of two or three districts, to assemble together and oblige the Aumil to grant them their lands at whatever price they pleased to fix: if he resisted, he was usually murdered. Sometimes Tippoo had leisure to punish them, and then he did so most severely; but at other times he had more important avocations, and their impunity encouraged a repetition of the offence. The natural consequence was, that the actual revenue of the country was rapidly diminishing, and even of that not more than two-thirds ever reached the royal treasury. If there could be any doubts of Tippoo's deserving the title I have given him, his conduct in Canara and Malabar would place it beyond doubt. The utter extermination of the Nairs of rank, who by conquest had become his subjects, seems to have been intended, and, as far as lay in his power, was by him carried into effect; for in Malabar, at its cession to us, there were none remaining, and in Canara they were diminished one half.

To the assertion, that many had quitted our provinces to live under the milder government of Tippoo, it is impossible to give any other reply than a positive denial of its truth; and I am at a loss to conjecture

lecture on what authority it is stated. Hyder indeed carried off from the Carnatic above 60,000 families, of whom only a vestige remained when Lord Cornwallis entered Mysore; but these unfortunate beings, so far from being satisfied with their situation, had found the yoke of Tippoo so heavy, that they joyfully seized the first opportunity to return to their native plains. The code of laws which Tippoo promulgated, and which has been so much praised by an honourable gentleman at the India House, was never even attempted to be carried into effect, and was merely meant by the tyrant to hand him down to posterity as a Mussulmaun legislator.

Hyder was indeed a different character: he might be an usurper; but he certainly governed the provinces he had seized from his sovereign, or conquered from the neighbouring princes, to the benefit of the inhabitants, without permitting his prejudices; as a Mussulmaun, to influence his conduct to the detriment of the Hindoos, as the following anecdote will very remarkably show. A celebrated Mussulmaun saint, called Peer Zaddah, resided at Seringapatam, and was greatly revered. On the festival of Shri Runga, the Goddess of Abundance, when her statue was, as usual, carried in procession from the temple through the streets, it unfortunately passed the door of the Peer, whose pupils being irritated at the idolatry, sallied forth, beat the people, and drove them and the Goddess back to her sanctuary. The Brahmins complained to Hyder, who told them that they ought to defend themselves when attacked. The next day the procession again went forth, and was again attacked by

the pupils of Peer Zaddah. The event was however very different; for the Hindoos, being by far the most numerous, beat their assailants, and continued their procession in triumph. The next day the Peer presented himself, with all his pupils, at the durbar of Hyder, and complained of the injuries they had received. Hyder heard them patiently, and then asked them what they wanted of him: they had attacked the party, and had been deservedly beaten; what else could they expect? and what had induced them to act so? The Peer replied, "that the procession was an insult to the Mussulmaun religion, and ought not to be suffered under a Mussulmaun government, whilst he, a Mussulmaun prince, was at the head of it." Hyder instantly interrupted him by asking, "Who told you that this was a Mussulmaun government, or that I was at the head of it? I am sure I never did." On this the Peer desired a private audience, which was granted; when, finding he could not change Hyder's determination, he declared his intention of quitting the place. Hyder told him, he might go wherever he pleased. Extremely indignant, he retired to Arcot, where many faquirs at that time resided; but not finding his new residence as pleasant as his old one, he shortly returned to Seringapatam, and wished again to live within the fort. Hyder however positively refused his permission, telling him, "that he had proved himself unworthy of doing so, but that he would give him a house any where else." The Peer retired in wrath to the Black Town, where he died, and was buried at China-patam.

By this uniform system of prudence and moderation, Hyder left his son a prosperous and improving kingdom, a strong, and, for an Asiatic, well-disciplined army, and a numerous and contented population. It is said, that on his death-bed, he advised his successor to reconcile himself to the English, and cultivate their friendship. Had he done so, it is probable that he would have transmitted to his posterity the advantages he received. Instead of this, a want of judgment, and a strong spirit of superstition, drove him into hostilities, which ended in his destruction. Any person who has the good of mankind at heart, cannot regret the event. The tyranny of a very small proportion of Mussulmauns over the native Hindoos has been put an end to; the province of Mysore, which under them was going rapidly to decay, is fast recovering, and already yields a greater real revenue than the former nominal amount: the tanks which Tippoo had destroyed, solely because they were built by Hindoo Rajahs, though of the utmost value to his subjects, are now repairing; and towns, which he had depopulated by his armies, or by the no less sure, but slower, operation of a prohibition to trade with their neighbours, because he bore an antipathy to them, are recovering their trade and inhabitants, and rising to more than their former prosperity.

It was with heartfelt satisfaction that I saw such evident marks of the good government of Purneah, who, as Dewan, has the management of the country during the Rajah's minority; for it was the British influence which had elevated him to the situation, and it was the British arms which had

banished the tyrant's family, and left him at liberty to act for the benefit of his country; for although under Tippoo he had very great power, it was impossible to remove the bigoted prejudices of his master against his Hindoo subjects, or to controul his chief favourite, Meer Saduc, who was a monster of tyranny and avarice.

I dined with Colonel de Meuron, who had invited all his officers to meet me. He resides in a part of the palace of Hyder. The state room was painted green, which seems to have been a favourite colour of that chief, with much gilding. It joins on one side to the harem, and opens into the public square.

March 12.—After breakfast I descended to Tippoo's durbar, attended by Major Symons, who kindly acted as interpreter, where I received the compliments of Narsingrow, eldest son to Purneah, and Bucherow, his deputy. They delivered the Rajah's congratulations on my arrival at Seringapatam, and an invitation to his residence at Mysore, which I accepted for the morrow. Narsingrow presented a nazur of fruit, shawls, &c. He assured me of his father's regret that his necessary absence with the army on the frontier prevented him from paying me a visit, but that he hoped I had received every proper attention on my journey, according to his instructions. I in return told him that I had every reason to be gratified by the compliments I had received, but that I hoped he would permit me to pay the bearers who carried my palanquins. He said that he felt much hurt that I should think of such a trifle; that the Rajah had ordered those people only to attend, who were bound to do so; and

and that he hoped I would not mortify his father by mentioning it again.

I thought that it would be rendering a service to the people of Bangalore, if I reported the misconduct of Purneah's brother-in-law, the Aumil; I therefore hinted that I had experienced more neglect there than in any other place, contrasting his behaviour with that of the Foojadar of Colar. Narsingrow assured me it was only owing to ignorance, but that he should instantly communicate the circumstance to his father.

The usual Asiatic conversation now took place. Bucherow expressed the satisfaction of the Rajah on my honouring his country with a visit; the gratitude he felt to my countrymen, and particularly Lord Wellesley, for having removed him from a dungeon, where his life was in danger from violence, and even from poverty, to a throne, and the protection of the English; and represented, in very pathetic terms, the distress to which the poor little boy, the last of his line, had been reduced, with his mother and relations. He and Narsingrow declared, that no other nation would have given up to the lawful sovereign, a country which they had conquered from a tyrant; and that all they could do would be to express their gratitude, by an inviolable attachment to their benefactors. I assured them that the whole nation approved of the conduct of Lord Wellesley in reinstating the Rajah, and that they relied with implicit confidence on his friendship and on the attachment of Purneah to them. I presented to each a pair of shawls, which I put over their shoulders with my own hands.

On our being again seated, Ma-

jor Symons informed me, that two of Tippoo's nephews were without, and wished to be presented to me. They are sons of Abdul Keer Cawn, Nawaub of Savanore, by a sister of Tippoo's who died lately. Hyder Hassein Cawn, the eldest, is about eighteen, uncommonly like his uncle, as I am told, and with very pleasing manners; the other is only fourteen, a very fine boy, but with no manners at all. I embraced them both on their entrance, but seated them on my left hand. I could not for a moment drive from my mind the strange vicissitude which had now placed me in the very palace of the haughty Tippoo, to receive the compliments of his nephews, and the presents of his ministers. Any thing which might be painful in this was however done away, by the knowledge that they were all rejoiced and benefited by the change. Tippoo's own family were by no means well provided for by him: these boys have now a more ample allowance from the British government than they would have had, had he lived, and their independence is as great: their father is at present deposed, but it seems by no means improbable that he may be reinstated; they are under no constraint, and live as they please. The eldest paid the usual Asiatic compliment of hoping for my friendship, and that I would extend my protection to his father: the youngest was silent. After a short time I ordered pawn and at-tar, which was a signal for their departure. I made no distinction in delivering these articles, between the son of the minister and the nephews of the deposed Sultaun, though the former is now the highest in rank; but the remembrance of what the family of the latter

once were, induced me to pay them every attention. I gave to each of them a shawl of superior quality.

Accompanied by Major Symons, I visited the Lolbaug, a country palace, situated at the other extremity of the island on which Seringapatam is built. It was begun by Hyder, and finished in 1780, when he was fighting in the Carnatic. He never returned to inhabit it. It is of two stories high, and by no means an inelegant building. The ground floor seems to have been occupied by the attendants, and is very public; above, are some excellent apartments, and balconies opening into courts, for the Sultaun to sit in, and give audience. It was prettily painted; but being too gloomy to be lighted up well for European entertainments, Colonel Close has white-washed a considerable part of it. It is situated in a garden, which might have been handsome before the first siege of Seringapatam by Lord Cornwallis, when it was filled with avenues of cypress, but at present it is very ugly. Many fruit trees are cultivated in it, but they are regularly planted, and have each a small canal to conduct water to the roots. A Mussulmaun has no idea of the beauties of nature.

Adjoining to the Lolbaug is the mausoleum of Hyder, where rests all that was royal of this Mussulmaun dynasty, Hyder himself, his wife, and Tippoo; who lie under tombs of black marble, elevated about eighteen inches from the ground. They are covered with rich cloths, and have a canopy over them. The whole building, with its dome, its brilliantly polished black marble columns, and its mosque annexed, has a handsome effect. In the verandah are

buried several of the family; and again without that, but on an elevated platform which goes round the whole building, are the tombs of several faithful servants. The British government have, with their usual liberality, continued the allowance for the Moulahs to read the Koran. The expense of this amounts to two thousand pagodas per annum. Three pagodas per day are also distributed in charity at the mausoleum.

We next visited a very pleasant country palace, built by Tippoo nearer the town. It is the residence of General Wellesley when here; and he has contrived to make it a very good house for an European, without destroying its Asiatic singularity and beauty. Here Tippoo frequently retired early in the morning, and continued the whole day; but invariably returned at night to Seringapatam. The upper floor consists of one centre room, with four others at the corners, and verandahs between them; all very curiously painted. A verandah below covers each side, the walls of which are painted in a very whimsical manner. On one side is the famous battle with Major Baillie, in which Tippoo gave hopes of future military talent, which were never realized. Major Baillie is in the centre of the hollow square, formed by his small body of men. The tumbril is in the act of blowing up. Tippoo and Hyder are advancing against him. These figures are well done, and are said to be like. In the opposite verandah the paintings are still more curious: Hyder and Tippoo appear there in all their splendour as conquerors, and the different princes conquered are painted below. Amongst these are placed some that

that never submitted, particularly the Rajah of Tanjore.

I was mortified to see there a British officer, whom Tippoo said he always wished to have the command against; as he was sure to take his detachment prisoners. He added, that if taken, he should be safe, in opposition probably to the fate of poor Baillie, of whose talents he had a very different opinion, and who therefore only found safety in the grave. This person is represented more than once. In one place he is drawing his sword on a woman, with a most threatening air and countenance. In another he is amusing himself with dancing-girls. In the same verandah are figures of natives of every cast and profession. These are very interesting, and I should have much liked to have had them copied, had there been time. General Wellesley has had them retouched, as they were going rapidly to decay.

March 2.—According to the arrangement made with Bucherow, I set off early in the morning for Mysore; it is about nine miles from Seringapatam in the same valley, but more elevated, and consequently more healthy. Tippoo, to destroy as much as possible every record of the Hindoo dynasty which he had deposed, removed the town to a small eminence, distant about a mile, and gave it a new name. After having nearly completed it, he discovered that there was no water; the place therefore could never have been inhabited. The English war put an end to the work, for the Rajah immediately began to carry back the materials to their old station; there probably to remain. The new town which has arisen near the seat of government, is of one street about a mile long. About a mile from it I

was met by Narsingrow, Bucherow, and the officers of the Rajah's household, with his whole swarm of elephants, kettle-drums, and trumpets, who conducted me to a small house, built by the Rajah for the British Resident when he comes to Mysore. The crowd was very great, and I should have been suffocated with the dust, had not the road been watered.

The whole town had been newly white-washed, and, at each door, banana plants were stuck in the ground, which had a pleasing effect. The strings were extended, as before, across the road; but instead of branches of the mango-tree, they were ornamented with pieces of cloth. I here found the gentlemen of Seringapatam assembled to partake of a breakfast, prepared by the Rajah. Besides a profusion of fruit, and all kinds of pastry and made dishes, we had several pieces of solanum, brought in pots, with the fruit dressed and hanging on the plant, which was in perfect health. The roots of other plants were boiled, whilst the green stem was untouched. It must have required some ingenuity to dress these dishes, but otherwise they had no merit. Some sweetmeats, which were said to be from his own table, were very good.

Soon after nine I set off for the fort, which is well built. No houses are permitted to be erected on the esplanade. On entering through a handsome gateway, which was an ancient choultry, I found the garrison drawn out to receive me. The drums and fifes played, and the officers dropped their swords as I passed, but the men remained motionless without presenting arms. They were a
finer

finer body of men than any I have seen, well dressed, and, I understand, well disciplined. The Rajah admits none of a low cast into his service. There is a great deal of empty space within the walls. The palace is small and neat, but not finished; before it I found his honorary guard, drawn out to receive me. The musnud was placed in a verandah on the left of the entrance. It was of ivory, fantastically carved, and had belonged to the former Rajahs. It was found amongst the stores of Tippoo, and was used for the inauguration of the young Rajah in 1799. It had probably owed its preservation to the little value of the materials. The superstition of the Hindoos seems to have attached a considerable value to it, for Bucherow pointed out to me the great good fortune of its not having being destroyed by the tyrant.

His Highness was dressed in gold tissue, with some handsome pearls round his neck; a cross of gold was lying on one side of him, on the other a small sword. On entering I made my salaams, which he returned, and held out his hand, which I did not perceive. Chairs were placed on his left hand for me and my party. Opposite to him were the other English gentlemen. On his right were Narsingrow and Bucherow, and behind them a great many domestics. His relations and several young boys who are brought up with him, were seated behind me. The verandah, in which we were seated, was covered with white cloth; the pillars handsomely painted and gilded. In front of his Highness was an cpergne, filled with flowers of the sambac, and on each side a servant held branches, in which incense was burning. His Highness

was considerably agitated at first, his breast visibly heaving; but after a little time he recovered himself, and behaved with great dignity and propriety. I paid the usual compliments through Major Symons and Narsingrow, assuring him of the satisfaction I felt at seeing him on the throne of his ancestors, and the confidence the British nation had in his friendship. He repeated what Narsingrow had before said: that he owed every thing to them, and that his gratitude was unbounded.

I turned the conversation to the new town of Mysore, and several indifferent subjects, to try if his replies would be ready. He never hesitated, spoke sensibly, and I was assured by Major Symons that he was not prompted. He is about eleven years old, of middle size, neither tall nor short of his age; not handsome, but of an intelligent countenance. He seemed lively; but on such a public occasion it would have been indecorous to have even smiled. He did so once, but was immediately checked by a person who stood by him. I inquired after his pursuits, and was informed, that he was fond of riding, and the sports of the field. These were considered as becoming his dignity; but when I observed that he seemed playful, I was instantly assured that he was not so. I therefore ceased my questions, as I found that I should not hear of his doing any thing that was not according to rule. I strongly recommended his learning English, and pointed out the advantage it was to the Rajah of Tanjore, in his communications with the British government, to be able to write and speak their language. They assured me that it should certainly be done. I regretted that his

his youth prevented my having the honour of receiving a visit from him at Seringapatam, and therefore requested that he would oblige me, by accepting from me a sabre as a small memorial.— Having procured one for the purpose, which had a handle of agate, ornamented with rubies, after the Asiatic fashion, I delivered it into his own hand, and he immediately placed it beside him, assuring me that it should always lie by him for my sake, and that it was a particularly valuable present to him, as he was of Shatrya, or soldier cast. He, in return, put round my neck a handsome string of pearls, from which was suspended a jewel of flat diamonds, and uncut rubies. He also presented me in trays, which were as usual laid at my feet, two beautiful chowries, two punkahs, and two walking-sticks of sandal wood, with two bottles of the oil, which he requested me to accept, as being the produce of his country. Immediately a salute was fired from the walls of the fort, and the strings of sambac were put round our necks.

His mother sent her compliments, with inquiries after my health, and expressions of satisfaction at my having honoured her son with a visit. Immediately afterwards, pawn and attar were distributed, and we took our leave. His Highness would have found it difficult to have risen, or rather descended, from his musnud, to take his leave, as it was full four feet from the ground, and I should suppose he was not taller himself. I therefore shook hands with him where he was, and expressed, what I really felt, the strongest wishes for his health and prosperity.

Hitherto, the acts of the Dewan Purneah have been such as to jus-

tify a reasonable expectation, that the young Rajah will, on his coming of age, find his country in a very flourishing state. As was naturally to be expected, the whole system of Tippoo has been done away, and every thing is restored to the same situation that it was in, prior to the usurpation of his father, except in one instance.

Mysore was formerly tributary to the Anagoondy Princes, sometimes called the Narsinga Rajahs. After the Patan dynasty was divided into the five independent states of Viziapore, Ahmednuggar, Berar, Beder, and Golconda, they united in a war against the Anagoondy Prince, and succeeded in destroying his power, by which means all the inferior Zemindars were liberated from his controul, and became independent. In the kingdom of Mysore, there were at least seventeen of these, who continued unsubdued till the time of Hyder and his son, who, in this respect judging wisely, expelled from the country an useless race of beings, leaving no one between the sovereign, as proprietor of the soil, and the ryot, as cultivator. On the restoration of the Hindoo princes, the Zemindars applied to Purneah to be reinstated, and would probably have succeeded, had not Colonel Close opposed their claims as unreasonable, arguing with them, that the Rajah had found them dispossessed, and that it could not be expected he would, without necessity, surrender to them so large a proportion of his dominions. He ultimately gained his object, by inducing some to accept small pensions, and by placing others about the person of the Rajah in a military capacity. Mysore exists, therefore, without a Zemindar, and the consequence has been, that for five years

years not a tumult has taken place in it, while the neighbouring provinces have been torn by war and insurrections.

March 3.—I dedicated this day to the viewing of Seringapatam. My first visit was to the curtain where the breach had been made. I was attended by several gentlemen who were present at the storming, and who kindly pointed out every circumstance to me. The attack was most judiciously made on a part where the Asiatic error of a long curtain had rendered a breach easy. The enfilading fire from the Bombay army, on the opposite side of the river, rendered the continuing on the ramparts a service of the greatest danger. The wretched natives, who were obliged to be there, had dug themselves holes in the earth, as some protection from the shot. In these they were taking their dinner, when the storming party entered, who put to death numbers of them before they could get out.

Tippoo had often been advised by his French officers, to carry an inner work from the Sultaun battery on the high ground, so as to cut off the north-west bastion, and that part of the curtain against which the attack was directed; but he was obstinate and ignorant. He seems to have had an idea that the Cauveri added much to his defence, for he had brought down the fortifications in an angle to the north-west bastion, that they might have it as a ditch on two sides. During the storm of the fourth of May, a small party of the soldiers, in the heat of the attack, passed from the outer to the inner rampart, over a wall which united them, though it was of great height, and not above a foot wide at top. The attempt was indeed so

hazardous, that the same men were afraid, on the following day, when their blood was cool, to recross it. These, and a larger party who made their way in another direction, greatly assisted in the attack, by flanking the Sultaun and his attendants, who were bravely defending traverse after traverse on the outer rampart, and were slowly retiring, before the superior force of the storming party, to the gateway in the inner wall. I think it probable, that his intentions were to retire immediately from a place that was no longer tenable, and to protract the war as long as possible, by putting himself at the head of his troops that were without the town, and which amounted to about twenty thousand men. The Bangalore gate had been opened during the whole of the siege; he could not therefore have had any difficulty in making his escape. If he had found it impossible to carry off his females, I think, from his character, there can be no doubt that he would have put them to death, and buried them in the ruins of his palace. All this was prevented by the fall of the tyrant; so that probably his family were as great gainers by that event, as the British, who thereby escaped a protracted warfare.

The inner ditch and rampart have been wholly destroyed, except in the spot where the wall gave a passage to the soldiers; that I was happy to find preserved as a memorial of their courage. It is a singular circumstance, that the besiegers had no idea of the existence of such a ditch and inner wall till the storm took place, though they had native spies constantly in the place. The gateway in which Tippoo fell, has been destroyed, with the inner work: a road

road is formed in its stead, with trees planted on each side, which will ultimately add much to the beauty of the town. It is still unknown who gave the fatal wound to the Sultaun: the invaluable string of pearls which he wore round his neck was the prize of one soldier, but it has never been produced or traced. He had been many years collecting this; always taking off an inferior pearl, when he could purchase one of more value.

We walked along the rampart for a little distance to the southward, where the fortifications are as strong, as they are weak on the banks of the Cauveri. Were it of importance to render Seringapatam a place of strength, the works proposed by the French ought to be carried into effect; but the time is arrived when the British can, in India, never have to defend themselves against a regular besieging army. It is certainly advisable that, as a military *depot*, Seringapatam should be strong enough to resist any sudden attack from the native powers, which it now is, without alteration. The numerous and large buildings which it contains, have given it the preference as a magazine over Bangalore, where the expence would have been very considerable in erecting them. I doubt, however, whether this would not have been repaid by the additional salubrity of Bangalore: Seringapatam is far more healthy; and without the town, particularly toward the lower part of the island at the Lolbaug, fevers are frequent.

Seringapatam is much inferior to any capital which I have visited in India: the palaces of the Sultaun have neither the imposing massive dignity of the Hindoo architecture,

nor the light airy elegance of the Mussulmaun buildings at Lucknow. The public apartments of Tippoo were handsome, but those of Hyder were plain in the extreme. The zenanas of both were extremely bad. They consisted each of a quadrangular building, two stories high, with verandahs all round, opening into the centre. Some of the rooms were large, but unornamented, and the pillars were of wood. I had seen several gentlemen who had entered them immediately after they were quitted by the females, and they assured me that they were in as dirty a state as I now found them. The lamps had been placed in niches in the walls, and the oil from each had been permitted to run down to the floor, forming a black stripe the whole way; and the wooden pillars in the largest rooms, and in the verandahs, had lost their colour by grease and dirt. How different from the description which Eastern tales have given us of these secluded apartments! In another respect they seem to have been more faithfully described; for it was evident, the females here confined had a most vehement desire to view, at least, the forbidden males. The two zenanas of Tippoo and Hyder joined, and had a communication with each other. On each side was a palace of one of these princes. In the front was an entrance from the public square, where the troops exercised, well secured, and guarded by eunuchs; yet in the wall above were discovered numerous holes, from which the prisoners could behold all that passed without, which at least afforded more variety than the monotonous routine of the interior.

The Rajah of Mysore having been removed from Seringapatam, these

these buildings are appropriated to public purposes. Hyder's palace is the residence of the surgeon; his zenana an European hospital. Tippoo's zenana is a barrack for the artillery; his private apartments are occupied by the resident, and his public by the European troops. These buildings have externally a heavy appearance, from the want of windows; but the view from them has been much improved by the English, who have opened a space to a temple of Shri Runga, which has a handsome effect, from having a choultry in front, and a lofty tower of the Tanjore style of architecture. On the left is the ancient palace of the Mysore Rajahs, and on the right are the ramparts, with their avenues of young trees.

I next visited Tippoo's arsenal, which was formerly a choultry and pagoda annexed to the Rajah's palace. The architecture of the whole is massive, and much more ancient than the other buildings. The pillars are square, and covered with sculpture; but the spaces between have been filled up to adapt it for its present purposes, which renders it difficult to examine the work. Here are vast quantities of matchlocks, spears, cresses, nail-knives, and chain-armour belonging to Tippoo, but which are useless to the British, and only valuable as old iron. These could be sold to the natives; but in the rebellious state of Malabar, they would probably soon be used against the sellers, and are therefore prudently retained. The most singular articles are several pieces of artillery cast by Tippoo, and ornamented with the figure of a tiger devouring the head of an European, an emblem of the fero-

city of the tyrant, and his implacability towards his Christian enemies. There is now here a considerable magazine of European muskets and field-pieces.

The palace which adjoined was in ruins, and has been totally removed to make way for a manufacture of gun-carriages, which was established in 1802, under the direction of Captain Scott. Formerly these were purchased at Madras by contract: the Rangoon teak was used, which is of an inferior quality, and the workmanship was in general so bad, that a few months service rendered them useless.— Captain Scott has instructed the natives in the working of the wood, iron, and brass, that is required. Every thing is done in one building; and although so short a period has elapsed since the commencement of the establishment, the manufacture is already advanced to a great degree of perfection. From the firmness of the teak wood, which is procured in the forests about forty miles from Seringapatam, they are enabled to give a lightness and elegance to the workmanship, without injuring its strength. The expence is still doubtful; but Captain Scott informed me, that he did not think it would exceed the former plan of purchasing by contract. If the first cost should even be greater, I think it will be advisable to continue the manufacture, as the additional price would be fully compensated by the greater durability of the materials. I was astonished that the natives could have been taught a new manufacture in so short a period. The highest credit is certainly due to Captain Scott for his exertions.

DESCRIPTION OF CALCUTTA.

[From the same.]

THE town of Calcutta is at present well worthy of being the seat of our Eastern government, both from its size, and from the magnificent buildings which decorate the part of it inhabited by Europeans. The citadel of Fort William, commenced by Lord Clive immediately after the battle of Plassey, is very fine work, but greatly too large for defence. The esplanade leaves a grand opening, on the edge of which is placed the new government house, erected by Lord Wellesley, a noble structure, although not without faults in the architecture; and, upon the whole, not unworthy of its destination. The sums expended upon it have been considered as extravagant by those who carry European ideas and European economy into Asia; but they ought to remember that India is a country of splendour, of extravagance, and of outward appearances: that the head of a mighty empire ought to conform himself to the prejudices of the country he rules over; and that the British, in particular, ought to emulate the splendid works of the princes of the house of Timour, lest it should be supposed that we merit the reproach which our great rivals, the French, have ever cast upon us, of being alone influenced by a sordid, mercantile spirit. In short, I wish India to be ruled from a palace, not from a counting-house; with the ideas of a prince, not with those of a retail dealer in muslins and indigo.

On a line with this edifice is a range of excellent houses, chiselled and ornamented with ve-

randahs. Chouringee, an entire village of palaces, runs for a considerable length at right angles with it, and, altogether, forms the finest view I ever beheld in any city. The Black Town is as complete a contrast to this as can well be conceived: its streets are narrow and dirty; the houses of two stories, occasionally brick, but generally mud, and thatched, perfectly resembling the cabins of the poorest class in Ireland.

Twenty years ago, during a famine, the population of Calcutta was estimated at 500,000. I have little doubt that it now amounts to 700,000. The most remarkable sight of the kind I ever beheld, was the throng that fills these streets in an evening. I drove for three miles through them without finding a single opening, except what was made by the servants preceding the carriage. The Strand in London exhibits nothing equal to it, for the middle is here as much crowded as the sides. In the year 1742, the Mahratta ditch was commenced, to protect the inhabitants from the incursions of that power, then ravaging the whole of Bengal, and besieging Aliverdi Khan in his capital of Moorshadabad. It was intended to surround the whole of our territories, a circumference at that time of not more than seven miles; yet now it scarcely forms the boundary of this capital of our Eastern possessions. The first fort was erected here in 1696. Our factories were then at Hoogly, but were moved two years afterwards. This little fort, which fell through the cowardice of its governor, and the

the want of military knowledge in the remaining officers, into the hands of Seraja-ud-Dowlah, in 1757, is now used as a custom-house; and that spot, which could then hold our trade, our military stores, and a great part of the inhabitants, is now too small for the convenience of our revenue officers. The black hole is now part of a go-down, or warehouse: it was filled with goods, and I could not see it. A monument is erected facing the gate, to the memory of the unfortunate persons who there perished. It also records the infamy of those, who, by removing their ships from the vicinity of the fort, left so many brave men at the mercy of a madman.

The air of Calcutta is much affected by the closeness of the jungle around it. The natives have formed a complete belt, which commences near the town, and extends in every direction full four miles deep. This is planted with fruit-trees, and is completely impervious to the air. The country is a perfect flat, every where intersected by nullahs, and here and there a small lake, rendering the plantation more insalubrious. Lord Wellesley has made one or two wide roads through the middle, which, I am informed, has sensibly improved the atmosphere. More ought to be made, and, if possible, the marshes should be drained; this would improve the roads, which, in general, are very bad, impeding the conveyance of provisions to market. The place is certainly less unhealthy than formerly, which advantage is attributed to the filling up of the tanks in the streets, and the clearing more and more of the jungle; but, in my opinion, it is much more owing to an improved knowledge of the diseases of the

country, and of the precautions to be taken against them; and likewise to greater temperance in the use of spirituous liquors, and a superior construction of the houses. Consumptions are very frequent among the ladies, which I attribute, in great measure, to their incessant dancing, even during the hottest weather. After such violent exercise they go into the verandahs, and expose themselves to a cool breeze and damp atmosphere.

A quay has lately been formed in front of the custom-house, and promises to be a great improvement. Many objections have been made to its erection, probably by interested persons. It is asserted that vessels cannot lie close to it with safety, as a north-wester, or gale from any quarter, may drive them against it; but it is obvious that the same force would drive them on shore, were the quay out of the way. The expence of unshipping the ladings was enormous, and will be completely obviated if the plan of embankment is carried the whole length of the town. This is now in agitation, and I hope will be resolved upon. It has been said that sand will accumulate against it, which seems to me an extraordinary idea, since I conceive the current will not fail to keep it clear, and that the only danger is of its being undermined. An extension of the custom-house itself, and of its establishment, will soon be necessary; at present the delay is considerable, from the vast increase of traffic.

Since I left Calcutta in March, the iron rails round the government-house have been finished. The space now to be cleared will certainly have a noble effect; and the writers' buildings being newly repaired, form a good object from the

the end of the street that leads from the northern front. These buildings would have been bought by government for the purpose their name imports, but too much money was asked for them.

The society of Calcutta is numerous and gay; the fetes given by the governor-general are frequent, splendid, and well arranged. The chief justice, the members of council, and Sir Henry Russel, each open their houses once a week for the reception of those who have had the pleasure of being presented to them. — Independently of these, hardly a day passes, particularly during the cool season, without several large dinner parties being formed, consisting generally of thirty or forty: the convivial hospitality which prevails on these occasions, would render them extremely pleasant, were they more limited; but a small and quiet party seems unknown in Calcutta. A subscription assembly also exists, but seems unfashionable. It is, however, the only place of public amusement, and I see no hopes of any other being established; for the fashionable world of Calcutta is unfortunately so divided into parties, that it is improbable any plan of public amusement could be brought forward, which would not meet with opposition.

It is usual in Calcutta to rise early, in order to enjoy the cool air of the morning, which is particularly pleasant before sun-rise. At twelve they take a hot meal, which they call tiffin, and then generally go to bed for two or three hours. The dinner hour is commonly between seven and eight, which is certainly too late in this hot climate, as it prevents an evening ride at the proper time, and keeps them up till midnight, or later. The vi-

ands are excellent, and served in great profusion, to the no small satisfaction of the birds and beasts of prey, to whose share a considerable proportion of the remains falls; for the lower order of the Portuguese, to whom alone they would be serviceable, cannot consume the whole; and the religious prejudices of the native servants prevent them from touching any thing that is not drest by their own cast. To this circumstance is to be attributed the amazing flocks of crows and kites, which, undisturbed by man, live together in amicable society, and almost cover the houses and gardens. In their profession of scavengers, the kites and crows are assisted during the day by the adjutant-bird, and at night by foxes, jackals, and hyenas, from the neighbouring jungles. The wines chiefly drank are Madeira and claret; the former, which is excellent, during the meal; the latter afterwards. The claret being medicated for the voyage, is too strong, and has little flavour.

The usual mode of travelling is by palanquins; but most gentlemen have carriages adapted to the climate, and horses, of which the breed is much improved of late years. It is universally the custom to drive out between sun-set and dinner. The mussalchees, when it grows dark, go out to meet their masters on their return, and run before them at the rate of full eight miles an hour, and the numerous lights moving along the esplanade, produce a singular and pleasing effect. It was formerly the fashion for gentlemen to dress in white jackets on all occasions, which were well suited to the country; but being thought too much an undress for public occasions, they are now laid aside for English cloth. The architecture of all the houses is Grecian,

Grecian, which I think by no means the best adapted to the country, as the pillars, which are generally used in the verandahs, require too great an elevation to keep out the sun during the greater part of the morning and evening, although the heat is excessive at both those periods. In the rainy season it is still worse, as the wet beats in, and renders them totally useless. The more confined Hindoo or Gothic architecture would surely be preferable.

On Lord Wellesley's first arrival in this country, he set his face decidedly against horse-racing, and every other species of gambling; yet at the end of November, 1803, there were three days races at a small distance from Calcutta. Very large sums were betted, and of course were lost by the inexperienced. There are a few steady and practised gamblers, who encourage every species of play among the young servants of the company, and make a considerable profit by their imprudence. As those are marked characters, I wonder they are not sent away.

The most rapidly accumulating evil of Bengal, is the increase of half-cast children: they are forming the first step to colonization, by creating a link of union between the English and the natives. In every country where this intermediate cast has been permitted to rise, it has ultimately tended to the ruin of that country. Spanish America and St. Domingo are examples of this fact. Their increase in India is beyond calculation; and though possibly there may be nothing to fear from the sloth of the Hindoos, and the rapidly declining consequence of the Mussulmauns, yet it may be justly apprehended that this tribe may hereafter be-

come too powerful for controul. Although they are not permitted to hold offices under the company, yet they act as clerks in almost every mercantile house, and many of them are annually sent to England to receive the benefit of an European education. With numbers in their favour, with a close relationship to the natives, and without an equal proportion of that pusillanimity and indolence which is natural to them, what may not in time be dreaded from them? I have no hesitation in saying that the evil ought to be stopped; and I know no other way of effecting this object, than by obliging every father of half-cast children to send them to Europe, prohibiting their return in any capacity whatsoever. The expence that would thus attend upon children, would certainly operate as a check to the extension of zenanas, which are now but too common among the Europeans; and this would be a benefit to the country, no less in a moral than in a political view.

After making these observations, I turn with much satisfaction to the brighter parts of the character of my Eastern countrymen. I can truly affirm, that they are hospitable in the highest degree, and that their generosity is unbounded.—When an officer of respectability dies, in either the civil or military service, leaving a widow or children, a subscription is immediately set on foot, which in every instance has proved liberal, and not unfrequently has conferred on the parties a degree of affluence, that the life of the husband or parent could not for years have insured them. The hearts of the British in this country seem expanded by opulence: they do every thing upon a princely scale; and consequently do

not save half the money that might be done with a narrower economy. The beginning, however, a fortune being once made, it collects as rapidly as a snow-ball. In seven years, or less, a capital is doubled; so that ten thousand rupees given to a child at birth, is handsome independence by the time it arrives at the age of twenty-one.

The supreme court is held in deserved repute, and the business is conducted with due decorum. The chief interpreter has been permitted to act as a police magistrate, in consequence of which his deputy sometimes appears in causes, the importance of which calls loudly for his master. The court, when I was there, was once delayed two hours by a confusion of the terms *paid* and *advanced*, made by this man, in a cause in which General Martin's executors were defendants. I had the satisfaction of hearing the court order them to pay two lacs and a half to the plaintiff, a shroff of Lucknow. The affair was one of the general's frauds, who had borrowed the money of him, and several other natives, to lend it to Asoph-ud-Dowlah: and on his being repaid, he refused to return them their share; and they dared not complain, as the Nawaub would instantly have seized it. They, however, kept his bond, and recovered it with interest.

It will hardly be believed, that in this splendid city, the head of a mighty Christian empire, there is only one church of the establishment of the mother country, and that by no means conspicuous, either for size or ornament. It is also remarkable, that all British India does not afford one episcopal see, while that advantage has been granted to the province of Canada;

yet it is certain, that from the remoteness of the country, and the peculiar temptations to which the freedom of manners exposes the clergy, immediate episcopal superintendence can no where be more requisite. From the want of this it is painful to observe, that the characters of too many of that order are by no means creditable to the doctrines they profess; which, together with the unedifying contests that prevail among them, even in the pulpit, tend to lower the religion, and its followers, in the eyes of the natives of every description. If there be any plan for conciliating the minds of the natives to Christianity, it is so manifestly essential it should appear to them in a respectable form at the seat of government, that I presume all parties will allow, that the first step should be to place it there upon a proper footing.

Since my return to England, I find that an episcopal establishment for India, upon a very large scale, has been publicly recommended by the Rev. Dr. Buchanan. Were its expediency in other respects agreed upon, I fear the present state of the revenue in that country would render such a serious addition to the expenditure unjustifiable; but the maintenance of one bishop could not reasonably be objected to; for, with a revenue of eleven millions, it becomes a duty to appropriate a part to religious purposes, and not a mere consideration of eligibility; I therefore concur with the doctor, in an earnest wish that such an appointment should take place without delay. In the contemplation of such a measure, I shall state my ideas relative to the situation, authority, and duties of a bishop for India.

I conceive it to be essentially requisite

quisite that the person appointed to this sacred office, should devote himself to it for life, renouncing every expectation of returning to England in advanced years, and enjoying himself in indolence upon a pension. He should consider the tie connecting him with his diocese as indissoluble, and place all his felicity in performing his duties with fidelity and honour. He should be free from the rage of proselyting, that he may be able to observe with impartiality the conduct of those whose zeal leads them to attempt the conversion of the Hindoos, and that he may prevent a recurrence of that violation of their prejudices, which has so recently been practised by some of the missionaries; a conduct highly reprehensible, which, if persevered in, will certainly induce them to decline all instruction, if it does not provoke them to expel the British from India. He should be invested with the full power of suspending and ordering home any of his delinquent clergy, without which it would be impossible for him to maintain effectual discipline; and if a right of appeal against his sentence were thought advisable to be granted, it should be either to an archbishop, or to the king in council; since a power of reversal lodged in the India company, might be found as detrimental in ecclesiastical, as it is in civil affairs. Even delicacy should induce them to decline it, since it is scarcely possible that all could be unprejudiced judges in the case of a person appointed by themselves.

I should be much inclined to urge the propriety of extending to the whole clergy of India the principle of perpetual residence; but in order to induce men of real merit to accept an office requiring

them to abandon the hopes of returning to their native country, a stipend should be annexed to it, sufficient to enable them to support a mode of living correspondent to their dignity, and make an adequate provision for their families. If a pension were allowed for the widows, it would be an additional motive to the truly respectable, and would render a large salary less necessary.

In every view, political as well as religious, it is highly desirable that men of liberal education and exemplary piety should be employed; who, by their manners, would improve the tone of society in which they lived, and, by the sacredness of their character, operate as a check on the tendency to licentiousness that too frequently prevails.

The splendour of episcopal worship should be maintained in the highest degree our church allows. On the natives of India, accustomed to ceremonial pomp, and greatly swayed by external appearances, it would impress that respect for our religion, of which, I am sorry to say, they are chiefly, by our neglect of it at present, destitute; the natural effect of which has excited a doubt in the minds of the Hindoo, of our own belief in that faith we are so anxious to press upon him.

The native inhabitants of Calcutta may indeed, from the sight of one solitary church, believe that we have a national religion; but I know of nothing that can give this information to the rest of our eastern subjects. Whilst the Musulmaun conquerors of India have established mosques in every town of their dominions, the traveller, after quitting Calcutta, must seek in vain for any such mark of the religion of their successors.

Another great obstacle to the reception

reception of christianity by the Hindoos, is the admission of the Pariahs into our church, among whom the chief conversions have been made, since nothing can be more shocking to their ideas than the equality thus produced between the higher and lower casts. As long as this distinction continues to exist, it will be impossible to obliterate such notions; and any innovation attempted by government in this respect, would be resisted with the utmost force of prejudice.

Although the Hindoos have adopted from us, various improvements in their manufactures of salt-petre, opium, and indigo, and have made rapid advances in the knowledge of ship-building, practical mathematics, and navigation; yet none of these acquirements have interfered with their religious prejudices. The instant these are touched, they fly off from all approximation to their masters, and an end is put to farther advancement. Nothing is therefore more to be avoided than alarming their jealousy on this head, and exciting the suspicion that government means, in any manner, to interfere in the business of proselyting. The Brahmins are a very powerful body; they are both an hereditary nobility, and a reigning hierarchy, looked up to with the highest veneration by the inferior casts, and possessed

of the most distinguishing privileges: they will consequently oppose with their whole influence any attempt to subvert that system, upon which all their superiority depends. They have already taken alarm at the proceedings of the missionaries in Bengal, and other parts; and, if driven to extremities, will doubtless excite a formidable disaffection to our government among the natives. On the contrary, the former wise policy of treating them with respect, and giving a full toleration to their superstitions, was often attended with the happy effect of making them the instrument of enforcing useful regulations in the country; for they have never scrupled, when required, giving a sanction to the orders of government to suppress hurtful practices, as in the case of the sacrifice of children at Sorgur, and in many other instances. We should also be aware, that although the comparison between the Musulmaun intolerance, and our contrary spirit, was so much in our favour, as to have had a powerful efficacy in attaching them to the British government, knowing that they had only one choice of masters; yet were this difference of policy taken away, their habits and manners, which are more congenial to those of the Mussulmauns, would probably induce them to prefer their government to ours."

ANTALOW (IN ABYSSINIA) and its GOVERNMENT.

[From the same.]

"AUGUST 27. — About six o'clock we left Derhah, in company with Subagadis, and his attendants, and travelled about ten
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miles over grazing plains and high rocky hills. The soil of the plains was of a black colour, extremely rich, and full twelve feet deep, as
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we ascertained by the broken banks of a stream which runs meandering through it; the hills also would admit of cultivation, if the large stones with which they are incumbered were removed; but this the inhabitants are too idle or ignorant to undertake, even on the flat land; so that it is with the greatest difficulty that they are able to plough it. After descending a steep pass, from which we had a full view of the hill of Antalow, we arrived at the village of Chelicut, where we were accommodated in a house belonging to the Ras, built on a beautiful spot close to the borders of a stream. We were at this place treated with more than usual ceremony and respect, and were informed that the Ras had ordered the greatest attention to be paid to our wishes. In the afternoon we were taken out to visit the church, attended by a multitude of priests, all handsomely clothed in white. On entering the first gate-way, they requested us to take off our shoes and hats, with which we immediately complied. I was somewhat surprised to see that the Mussulmauns were permitted to enter into the first circular avenue. A sufficiently accurate idea of the whole building may be formed, by imagining three concentric circular walls covered with a thatched roof, surmounted by a ball and cross. The spaces between the two outer walls were open avenues; the space included within the central one forms the body of the church. The walls were coated with whitish-red plaister, ornamented with gilding, and covered with representations of Noah and the Ark, Christ and the Virgin Mary, the Apostles, the martyrdom of the saints, many extravagant designs

taken from the prophecies, and St. George fighting the dragon. This latter saint seems to be the national favourite, and every where makes a most conspicuous figure upon his white horse. The colouring of all these figures was very gaudy, but some of them, particularly one picture of the Virgin Mary, the face of which was covered with glass to preserve it, was executed in a style superior to the generality of eastern paintings. The infant Christ was placed in one instance in the left hand of his mother, and in another in her right.

In the outer circle of the church was suspended a very handsome glass chandelier, presented to the Ras by the Sheriffe of Mecca. From the church we were taken to the store-room, to view the rich vestments and furniture of the officiating priests, which were of great beauty. Among other articles were eleven mitres of pure silver inlaid with gold, two dresses of black velvet richly studded with silver, a large silver drum hooped with gold, besides a rich Venetian cloth very handsomely embroidered. The priests seemed to have much pleasure in shewing us their wealth, and afterwards conducted us to the Ras's garden, which, though in a very wild state, and overgrown with grass, was enriched with many valuable fruit-trees, as oranges, citrons, pomegranates, and bananas, most of which, from their names being evidently derived from Arabic, I supposed to have been originally brought from Arabia.

Chelicut is the residence of Azoro Mantwaub, one of the Ras's wives; she is a daughter of Ayto Ischias, and sister to the present king. She was extremely polite in her attentions to us, sent us many flattering

flattering messages, and provided our table with plenty of curry and maize. Notwithstanding the great attention paid to us, we had much difficulty in procuring provision and maize (though we at last accomplished it) for our friend Subagadis, who had not presumed to come near the Ras's house; nor did the villagers even dare to furnish him with a house, though the weather was very inclement, for fear of displeasing his brother Thadoo, who was said to be in great favour with the Ras. At night, however, some of those who favoured his party, gave him a wretched hovel to shelter him from the rain. The thermometer was 64°. The length of our day's journey was about eight miles.

August 28.—Having prepared ourselves as well as circumstances would permit for going into the presence of the Ras, we left Chelicut at an early hour, and were joined by Subagadis on the opposite side of the brook which runs through the village. Between this place and Antalow is a lofty mountain, for the purpose of avoiding which, we continued to wind round the eastern and southern sides of it for nearly ten miles, over hills which skirt its base. The small vallies which we passed were wet and swampy with the last night's rain, which much impeded our progress. We passed a large village called Afgool, belonging to Ozoro Ambeah, another of the Ras's wives, the principal inhabitants of which came out to pay their compliments. At length, after our patience was nearly exhausted by mounting hill after hill, we came suddenly in sight of Antalow, distant from us about a mile. As we approached, our train increased very rapid-

ly, and before we reached the Ras's residence, we had to pass through an assemblage of at least three thousand of the inhabitants. They pressed so hard to get near us as we were going through the first gate, over which were sitting some of the officers of state, that it was with great difficulty we could force a passage. We were not allowed to dismount from our mules till we had got into the entrance of the great hall, at the farther end of which was seated the Ras, on a couch with two large pillows upon it, covered with rich satin. On each side of him, seated on the floor, which was carpeted, were all his principal chiefs, and among others, our friend Baharnegash Yasous. On being ushered with much bustle into his presence, according to the custom of the country, we bowed, and then kissed the back of his hand, and he in return kissed ours; he then pointed to a vacant couch on his right, covered with a beautiful skin, on which we were immediately seated. After this the usual compliments passed, the Ras on his part expressing his pleasure at seeing us, and we on our part making a proper return, with additional compliments from Lord Valentia at Mocha. We were then given to understand that nothing more was to be said at this visit. In a few minutes after, Captain Rudland was taken away to inspect the apartments allotted us, and on his return we withdrew, attended by a minister of the Ras, through whom we were to communicate all our wishes.

The hurry with which our first interview was conducted, did not permit us to make many observations concerning the persons present, and our attention was of

course principally directed to the Ras. He is remarkably small in person, and delicately formed, quick in his manner, notwithstanding his age, which was said to be seventy-two, with a shrewd expression in his countenance, and considerable dignity in his deportment. Though he did not move from his couch, on which he partly reclined, yet our reception was considered to be particularly gracious, as, by kissing our hands in return, he placed us on an equality with himself. We had previously been required to uncover our heads, and prostrate ourselves before him; but this we most positively refused.

We were furnished in the course of the day with abundance of provisions, and were much pressed to eat and drink profusely, by way of doing honour to the house. In the evening we had several polite messages from the Ras, who sent for our fire-arms, and treated Pearce and Ibrahim, who took them to him, with great attention, seating them on his couch, and giving them plenty of maize. He was highly delighted with the guns, and in return sent us a fishing-net, acquainting us at the same time, that he seldom staid at home in the night, but took his pleasure in fishing and hunting. He sent us also a dish of stewed fish, which was thought very delicious by some of our party. We had a pretty good example of the Ras's watchfulness, for about twelve o'clock he sent us some clouted cream, and at four I was called up to receive the compliments of the morning.

August 29.—At about ten in the morning we were invited to breakfast with the Ras, and were received with the same distinction as

yesterday, being seated on a sofa, while his minister was placed close by on the carpet. We were very plentifully fed by the Ras himself with eggs, fowl in curry, and balls of a mixed composition of wild celery, curds, and gheer, after which we were offered brinde; but on our expressing a wish to have it dressed, the meat was afterwards brought grilled, and cut into small pieces by one of the attendants, and handed to our mouths by the Ras, much in the same way as boys in England feed young magpies. It is scarcely possible to describe the scene that was going on in the mean time in the hall, where the people were squabbling and almost fighting with their drawn knives, for the raw meat that was handed about, and the teff bread that lay heaped up around the table; there were, however, some masters of the ceremony, who carried long white sticks, with which they frequently chastised those who were too hasty in seizing their portion.

We afterwards spent the day very quietly, as the time for receiving the presents from Lord Valentia was deferred till the morrow. The thermometer was 68° in our room, and frequent storms of rain occurred during the day.

August 30.—A copy of Lord Valentia's letter, which I had ordered to be written in case the original should not have safely arrived, was delivered to the Ras in the morning at four o'clock, by Hamed Chamie, who also, as far as I had authorized him, entered into an explanation of the nature of my mission from his Lordship. About six o'clock I was sent for, and found the Ras alone in the hall; I then delivered to him, in the name of Lord Valentia, the presents sent by

by his lordship, which consisted of two entire pieces of broad cloth, one blue, and the other red; a handsome watch, a telescope, some pieces of kincaub and satin, a dress of gold tissue, a gold ring and broach, and several pieces of muslin. These presents gave great satisfaction, more particularly those articles which were new to him, namely, the watch, telescope, and trinkets; and the kincaub and gold dress he repeatedly ordered to be opened out before him. On stating, in the name of his lordship, the impossibility of procuring at Mocha such presents as he would have wished to send, he stopped me at once, by expressing his entire satisfaction with what he had received; and assured me, that his only regret arose from the impossibility of communicating, in our language, the friendship he felt for us, who, strangers as we were, had come so far from our parents, our friends, and our country, to visit him; while those who were near him, and ought to be his friends, thought only of making war upon him. He then asked me what were the wishes of Lord Valentia, and the objects for which I had come. In return I informed him, that Lord Valentia's sole motive in sending me, was an anxious desire to promote an intercourse of friendship between two such powerful countries as England and Abyssinia, the inhabitants of which were moreover of the same religion; and that if the Ras was inclined to form such a connection, to represent to him how much it might conduce to the interest of his country. That Abyssinia having hitherto been accustomed to receive all her imports at the third or fourth hand, an immoderate duty had been paid at every separate transfer; whereas an intercourse with the English, who are

uncontrouled masters of the sea, would enable the Ras to supply himself at once with whatever commodities he might want, and of a quality far superior to any that had hitherto found their way into his country; that in all this Lord Valentia was actuated by no motives of personal advantage, having only in view the mutual benefit of England and Abyssinia, to which a free interchange of each other's produce would materially contribute. His lordship, I added, was now proceeding to England, and would gladly take charge of any communication which the government of Abyssinia might choose to make on the subject to the British government.

After a silence of a few minutes, the Ras asked me, whether Massowah, or any other port in the neighbourhood, would be most convenient for English vessels to deliver their cargoes at. To this I replied, that I believed there was no harbour, but only anchorage, at Beiloul, otherwise the vicinity of that place to his capital, would give it a decided advantage over Massowah. That there was indeed a convenient port at this latter place, and a tolerable supply of fresh water; but both the town and the adjacent territory were at present under the command of Nayib Edris, who seemed inclined rather to thwart than promote the interests of Abyssinia, as the interception of my letter to the Ras (for the conveyance of which I had been obliged to pay thirty dollars), doubtless in consequence of orders from the Nayib, would sufficiently prove; and that, moreover, I had been forced to give him five hundred dollars for liberty to pass through his territory, and for the promise of mules, &c. for our accommodation, which latter agreement

agreement had been scandalously violated. The Ras expressed much displeasure at this conduct of the chief of Massowah; and said that the former Nayib, Hannes, had always been a good friend of his, and that the present Nayib had given no cause for dissatisfaction, until about five years ago, when he had been obliged to send thither a military force to bring him to reason, and that he then should have cut off all communication between Massowah and Abyssinia, if the Nayib had not appeased him by the most humble supplications. He farther added, that there was a place on the coast belonging to himself, called Buré, not more than four days journey from Antalow, well supplied with water and cattle; the inhabitants of which had often solicited permission to open a trade with the ships that were constantly passing within sight of them. That the road between Buré and Antalow was very practicable for kafilas, excepting one day's journey, in which no water was to be procured; and that if this place should be deemed sufficiently convenient, he would immediately turn the trade into that channel. In order that I might satisfy myself on the subject, he offered to send for one of the chiefs of the place, from whom I might obtain any additional information that I chose; and when I represented to him that no verbal report would be so satisfactory, as sending one of the gentlemen who had accompanied me to make inquiries on the spot, he immediately assented to the proposal. He then said, that a hope was expressed in Lord Valentia's letter, that I might go to Gondar; but though it was his anxious wish to comply with all our desires, it was at present impossible to secure the safety of our per-

sons on the journey, he being on bad terms with Gusmatie Guxo, who had possession of Gondar. The Ras then entered into a detail of the circumstances out of which the present dispute between himself and his rival originated; and of this the following account, corrected in some particulars by Hadjee Hamed, who was well acquainted with the circumstances, is a correct abstract.

The differences arose at a very early period. Ras Wellela Selassé placed Wellela Solomon on the throne, after the abdication of his father, Tecla Hamainout; but the new sovereign was soon opposed by the contrary party: afterwards, the Ras raised Tecla Georgis to the supreme command. This appointment, however, was not more agreeable to the opponents of the Ras, than the former had been, who compelled Tecla Georgis three several times to fly for protection to Tigré, which was more immediately under the control of his patron. The presence of the Ras being required at his capital in Tigré, every exertion was made by the other party to raise Ayto Ischias, and afterwards his son Ayto Gualoo, members of another branch of the royal family, to the throne. At length the Ras finding, as it should seem, his two favourites, Wellela Solomon and Tecla Georgis, unequal to maintain the royal authority, was induced to give his sanction to the establishment of the crown on the head of Ayto Gualoo; and in order to bring over the king to his interest, in opposition to that of Guxo, he married Ozoro Mantwaub, the sister of his present majesty. Gusmatie Guxo, in the mean time, after successfully increasing his power, and re-establishing his influence over all Amhara and Begemder, took advantage of

Ras Wellela Selassé's absence from the capital about three years ago, to send an arrogant message to the king, recommending to him his daughter as a wife, if he had any thought of remaining at Gondar. The king, whatever were his inclinations, was under the necessity of complying with the proposition, and accordingly married the lady.

At this period, affairs seemed to wear a better face; both parties affected satisfaction at what had taken place, and all animosity was for a time suspended, the tie of kindred being now added to that of allegiance; but this calm was not of long duration. Two years had not elapsed, when, on the death of the late Abuna, Guxo broke violently into the house of the deceased, and plundered it of gold and valuables to the amount of five hundred wakeas of gold, which was considered not as the private property of the Abuna, but as belonging to his office of high priest, and was by custom to be expended in defraying the expences of bringing his successor from Egypt.

Religion was too fair a pretence for war to be neglected by Ras Wellela Selassé, who thereupon raised his forces, and being joined by Ras Gabriel, governor of the provinces of Samen and Waldubba, commenced his march towards Gondar. Guxo, unprepared for so immediate an attack, sent a deputation of priests to restore the money, and thus conciliate the favour and prevent the approach of the offended Ras. In this they succeeded, the cause of war being done away by the restoration of the property; upon which the Ras having made an addition to the five hundred wakeas of gold, sent immeniately a deputation for a successor to the deceased Abuna.

Guxo's pride, however, had received too severe a mortification to acquiesce in what had taken place; and being moreover supported by two of the chief priests, Eustachias and Tecla Hamainout, who had taken upon them all the power of the Abuna, was supposed at this time to be preparing war against Wellela Selassé and his allies. In order still farther to strengthen his party, he is said to have formed a league with Siban, son of Kollassé of Michællis, who is at the head of the Edjow Galla, and is reported to be able to bring into the field thirty thousand cavalry, besides double that number of spearmen. This united force commenced its operations by an attack upon Ras Gabriel, in his province of Samen, and obliged him to fly to Ras Wellela Selassé for assistance. After gaining a promise from the latter, that he would join him without fail, as soon as it was possible to cross the Tacazza, he returned to defend his own province, and is at present besieged in the mountains of Geshen-hai.

Ras Gabriel is said to have one thousand matchlocks in his army, with which he holds out against the united force of Amhara, Begemder, and the Galla. Ras Wellela Selassé, on the first news of Guxo's preparations, sent off a man of rank to inquire into the cause of them; but his messenger was seized, put in irons, and imprisoned, by order of Guxo; and in consequence of this, the breach is now irreparable. The king is obliged to be a quiet spectator of these contests for power between his rival relatives, and to submit to the unconstitutional hostilities of his father-in-law against his brother, who is invested with the legal authority in civil and military concerns. The Ras told me, however,

however, that he would defer his march till we were safe back at Massowah, as during his absence the enemy would be anxious to get us into their power; for, hearing that we were come on some mysterious concern, they would be afraid that with other dowa (physic) we might have brought poison to extirpate the whole army. He concluded by saying, that after we had spent a few days with him, we might visit any part of Tigré, and that he should be extremely happy to show us the whole of Abyssinia, if God pleased to give him success in the expected contest, were it possible for us to wait so long.

I returned to him my grateful thanks for the manner in which he had opened to me the situation of public affairs, stating at the same time, that I considered him the best judge of the possibility of our taking the projected journey to Gondar in safety; and after the full explanation which he had given, I could not think, however much I had it at heart, of pressing the subject any farther. I hoped, however, that he would be able to shew us Wal-dubba; in our journey to which place, I should have an opportunity of seeing the Jews' rock and the Tacazza. The Jews' rock our interpreter could not make out; but on mentioning it to the Ras, he instantly knew it, and told me that he was the first person who ever succeeded in an attack upon it. Ras Gabriel of Samen, with whom he some time past was at war, shut up Tecla Georgis upon it, whence he was released by Ras Welleta Selassé. There are a few Jews yet remaining at this place. The Ras assented to my proposal, and promised that I should visit Tecla Georgis at Wal-dubba, and Welleta Solomon at Axum; that though

the former place was not indeed in his dominions, yet as it belonged to his friend Ras Gabriel, we might go thither in perfect safety. I then requested a copy in Arabic of the History of Abyssinia, from the reign of Joas to the present time: he told me in reply, that the chronicles were kept at Axum, and that he would take care I should not be disappointed. On my shewing him the drawings in Bruce's volume, he said that he knew Yagoobe well; he came into Abyssinia after the battle of Fagitta, and afterwards went to the head of the Nile.

Nothing more passed at this interview, except some trifling conversation, which being ended, we left the hall, and did not again see the Ras during the day. It being a public fast, we had provisions brought up to our private apartments. No person had been permitted to come near us, and our persons were kept quite secured from the gaze of the vulgar.

We have had rain, thunder, and lightning every afternoon since our arrival. The thermometer was 62°, and the weather very wet and cold.

August 31.—We had a message at an early hour in the morning, to inquire after our health, and an invitation to breakfast with the Ras: nothing took place, except a recurrence of the scene on Thursday, only that, as a favour, we were permitted to make a bow to our good friends Subagadis and Bahar-negash Yasous, who were kept at a great distance by the Ras. All the dishes were extremely good; the Ras was in high spirits, and in great good humour, and at his earnest request, we this day, for the first time, ventured on some small pieces of brinde.

September 1.—Our servants, not having been permitted to go beyond the

the walled inclosure, about twenty or thirty feet square in front of the building which we occupied, were much dissatisfied, and began to bresage our detention in the country. In the morning, I complained to the Ras of this unreasonable strictness, and he said in reply, that it was only intended to prevent any harm happening to them. I notwithstanding requested, that he would allow them to go out when they pleased, and to take care of their own safety. I was going to proceed on other subjects, when his brother and several chiefs were admitted into the hall, which entirely put a stop to all business. Mules were brought in for our riding, of which Captain Rudland and myself availed ourselves, to take a survey of the mountain of Antalow. We first skirted the western extremity, and then ascended the northern side by a steep path that had seldom before been attempted by mules. We found the summit covered with verdure, and pastured by numerous herds of cattle. On passing over to the southern brow, we had a complete view of the town of Antalow, the adjacent villages, and the high mountains that divide Tigré from the country of the Galla to the south.

Antalow consists of upwards of one thousand houses, with conical thatched roofs, erected upon an uneven rising ground in the valley below. The house of the Ras is conspicuous from its size, from the different shape of the roof, and from a wall by which it is surrounded. With this exception, the rest of the place makes a most wretched appearance, and the country around is extremely uninteresting, there not being a tree to be seen in the whole extent, except a few small ones that surround the

two churches in the vicinity of the town.

The top of this hill was formerly used as a place of defence, and on many of the ledges of the rocks, walls yet remain, formed of loose stones, for the purpose of impeding the progress of assailants. The last time that the inhabitants fled to it, was in the time of Ras Michael Suhul, when they were attacked by the Galla, under a chief of the name of Waldo.

On our return, we were obliged to dismount from our mules, the descent being steep and broken, and well calculated by nature for defence. The upper part of this hill is composed of loose calcareous stones, of a reddish sandy colour, lying in horizontal strata, bare, and perpendicular at the edges; lower down is found a bed of breccia, resting upon a mass of hard black stone (probably basalt), of which the whole base of the mountain consists. At the bottom we passed two villages, and after crossing a few low ridges, reached Antalow, where we were received by some hundreds of the inhabitants, who had assembled to view the strangers.

On our arrival, we found the Ras at breakfast, and were invited to join him; the dishes were the same as usual, with the addition of boiled cow-heel. The Ras was in good humour, and asked many questions about our churches, our king, &c. An old woman was standing behind him, whom he very significantly introduced as a proper person for us to become acquainted with, as she had many young ladies under her care. He had often before joked with us on the same subject, but had never gone so far as on the present occasion. After taking our usual quantity of maize, the Ras shewing

ing an inclination to sleep, we retired.

In the evening we went into the hall, and found the Ras at chess in the midst of his chiefs. The chess men, which are coarsely made of ivory, are very large and clumsy; when they have occasion to take any one of their adversary's pieces, they strike it with great force and eagerness from its place. I observed that their game differs much from ours. Bishops jump over the heads of knights, and are only allowed to move three squares. The pawns move only one step forward at starting, and get no rank by reaching the end of the board; they play with much noise, every person around, even the slaves, having a voice in the game, and seizing the pieces at pleasure, to shew any advisable move. We observed, however, that they always managed with great ingenuity to let the Ras win every game.

A repast was afterwards served up, at which many ladies were present; among these, one, who, we were informed, was one of his brother's wives, sat on the same couch with the Ras; others were seated on the floor, and all seemed to do justice to the brinde and maize.

We were much distressed in the evening at the loss of our interpreter, Hadjee Hamed, who withdrew himself, as he informed us, from dissatisfaction at the treatment he had experienced from some of the Ras's people, telling me that he would, "Please God," return in the morning.

September 2.—We did not see any thing of the Ras in the morning, our breakfast being brought to our own apartment; and from hearing less noise than usual in the large hall, we had every reason to

suppose it was one of their fasts. The day passed over, and we heard nothing of Hadjee Hamed, although we sent repeated messengers after him. From this circumstance, and certain reports which our servants collected in the town, we were led to believe that there was something not very pleasant going on; but what it was, we were unfortunately not able to ascertain, being shut out from all communication, except with the Ras, to whom we sent our salaams in the evening, which were politely returned. The thermometer at noon, in our room, was 63°: much rain fell in the course of the evening.

September 3.—Being determined to explain myself as well as I could, through Ibrahim, who spoke imperfectly the language of the country, I sent early in the morning to the Ras, requesting to speak to him. He returned for answer, that he would see me on the morrow. I sent a second message, but with as little effect, as he excused himself on the plea of being much engaged in business. I then pressed him to send for Hadjee Hamed; upon which he returned back word, that our interpreter did not dare to come, being in fear of his life, which he said we had threatened to put an end to. This message gave us considerable uneasiness, as it appeared reasonable to suppose that so palpable a falsehood could only be invented by Hadjee Hamed, for the purpose of counteracting our interest with the Ras, which he might conceive detrimental to that of the Sheriffe of Mecca; or by the Ras, for the purpose of throwing on us the blame of his departure, which, on the contrary, was occasioned by the misconduct of his own impertinent slaves; and in either case it was

was likely to be the forerunner of much mischief to our views. The only circumstance that led us to impute it to Hadjee Hamed was, that we before had discovered that he endeavoured to lessen as much as possible the value of the presents which we gave to the Ras.

The Ras sent in the course of the day a message of inquiry after our health, accompanied by a present of oranges, limes, and dried plantains. Our food was as usual brought to our apartment; it consisted of a fowl in the morning, and a small mutton curry in the evening, which, though rather a scanty allowance, put us to no real inconvenience, as we had a plentiful supply of good bread and maize; in addition to which, we this day received from the Ras, about noon, some of his own fine wheaten bread.

I was engaged during the morning in penning some of my sketches, and Captain Rudland in teaching one of the Ras's principal men how to make a white-wash for the walls of the house, from a chalk stone that we found on the hill of Antalow.

Mr. Carter got an observation at noon, by which he fixed the latitude of this place to be in $12^{\circ} 48' 30''$. The latter part of the day was extremely gloomy, with much rain, thunder, and lightning; the thermometer at noon was 60° .

September 4.—I repeated my message to the Ras, by means of Ibrahim at an early hour in the morning, stating our wish to pay him a visit; which he politely put off till mid-day. Soon after, he sent a request to Captain Rudland, that he would accompany his builder to the hill, in order to point out the stone that they made use of on the day before. I after-

wards took this occasion to send Hamed Chamie to the Ras with the Mussulmaun builder, who spoke Arabic, to beg that another interpreter might be assigned me, and that Hadjee Hamed might be brought into his presence, that I might have an opportunity of shewing how falsely I had been accused. The latter request he evaded, by saying that Hadjee Hamed would not come any more, but that I might procure any other interpreter that I chose. Hamed Chamie then stated to him in the true Arabic style, that we were his strangers, that our lives and property were in his hands, and that he might do with them as he pleased: in return, he expressed himself in very friendly terms, and promised that all our wishes should be complied with. After our breakfast, consisting of half a fowl curried, the Ras sent us a large citron, with the usual salaams.

Pearce went out into the market in the morning, and found it so crowded, that he could with difficulty ascertain the articles brought for barter; corn, butter, ghee, onions, skins, and cattle, seemed to be the staple commodities; the small currency, if it may be so called, consisted of wedges of rock salt, each weighing two or three pounds, and estimated at one thirtieth of a dollar.

Weekly markets are held in many parts of the country, at a distance from all habitations; one we passed on our way from the residence of the amiable Ozoro Mantwaub, and another on our way to the mansion of Debib, chief of Negashe. In all these many hundred men were assembled, who therefore do not consider it infamous (as Bruce asserts) for them to attend a market.

At twelve o'clock I sent Hamed Chamie to the Ras to solicit the promised audience, but hearing that he stood unnoticed in the hall, I determined at once to go without ceremony into the presence, attended by Captain Rudland; thinking it absolutely necessary to come to an immediate explanation concerning the absence of Hadjee Hamed, and other unpleasant circumstances which had reached our ears; more especially as all the persons with me had expressed great uneasiness about our situation, being in considerable alarm lest we should be detained in the country. We found the Ras engaged at chess with one of his chiefs; on seeing us he offered his hand, seating me by his side, and Captain Rudland next to me. Our patience however was nearly exhausted before the game was completed, not a single word during this time being spoken to us. Some of his people who had been waiting for a considerable time, presented him cakes of bread, honey, a sheep, and fire-wood. He now dismissed the whole party, and after a few minutes conversation with a priest, who was to give us intelligence concerning the latter portion of the Abyssinian history, the room was cleared.

I proceeded to express my regret at the conduct of Hadjee Hamed, whom I most solemnly declared I had always treated with the greatest attention, as being sent to me by the Ras: I stated also, that this man, on leaving me, had given an entirely different reason for his going away, and that I was fearful that he had been saying something prejudicial of us, and had altogether been acting an underhand part; in consequence of which I had been extremely anxious for

a personal conference, wherein the whole might be explained. The Ras was gloomy for some time, and at last said that he did not as yet clearly understand the motives of our coming into his country. This I immediately ascribed to the fault of his interpreter; and then proceeded to enter fully into a repetition of what had passed on my laying the presents before him, and concluded with saying, that by his invitation we had come up to his presence through barbarous districts, where nothing but his name could have protected us, and had entrusted him with our lives and property, which were all at his disposal; and that now our only desire, during the remainder of our stay in his country, was to act in strict conformity to all his wishes; but that we expected to be treated as friends, and at least to have the full liberty to go out whenever we pleased, and to move about wherever we might choose in his territories, as, above all things, confinement was particularly irksome to us. On this he began to relax a little; said that there had been a mistake made by Currum Chund in inviting us; but that, as we were here, it was all well; that it was his anxiety about our persons, which made him wish we should have no communication with the inhabitants, who were little to be depended upon; and that he would rather lose two thousand of his own subjects, than that any one of our people should come to harm.

I made a proper return to this unexpected sally of friendship, and then proceeded to remark, that as I could not now depend upon any thing that Hadjee Hamed had interpreted, I could no longer be certain whether the mules were sent

sent down by the Ras for our conveyance and accommodation; that, if they were, I begged to return him our most grateful acknowledgments, but, if they belonged to any other person, I should be obliged to him to permit me to make the owner of them a proper recompense. By this, I hoped to allay his pride, if he had any, and prevent any further complaints or demands on that account. He was, as I expected, hurt at the remark, and begged that I would not mention any thing of the kind again, as they were "bad words;" that my wishes, whatever they were, should be complied with; and that I had only to make them known to have them immediately carried into effect. I proceeded directly to urge Mr. Carter's going down to Buré, as an affair of the greatest importance. The Ras told me that he had sent two messengers thither for the chief of that place, who would certainly arrive by Saturday next, and that Mr. Carter might then return with him, as I desired.

Our journey to Axum and Adowa was the next topic; the Ras said, that it would be my best plan to set out as soon as possible, since his army was, in a short time, to assemble from all quarters, and I might return to Antalow with the detachment from Adowa: he added, that as he could not trust our persons on the road between Adowa and Dixan (without stating some reason for it), he wished us to return to Massowah by the road which we came, as being perfectly secure.

I entirely assented to these points, adding, that he was, no doubt, the best judge of what was practicable. After which, I informed him that I should wish to

set out for Axum the day after the morrow, and that as he thought, from the state of the roads, that it would be better for me to go with as few attendants as possible, it was my intention to take with me only two servants, and during my absence I would leave Captain Rudland under his protection at Antalow, and Mr. Carter might at the same time execute the plan of paying a visit to the Buré. He was perfectly satisfied with this arrangement, and said, that two mules should be in readiness for me, and men to carry what baggage I might want. I then returned to the subject of the Jews' rock, and expressed my anxiety to see it, as being desirous of giving my countrymen some idea of a place that, till he took it, had been always considered as impregnable, and which Ras Michael Suhul had not dared to attack when Ayto Tesfos, governor of Samen; had fled thither for refuge. He expressed much surprise at my knowledge of this circumstance; but was evidently highly pleased with the compliment, and promised to arrange the expedition for me on my return from Axum, as by that time the waters of the Tacazza would have subsided. He added, that there was not such another fortress in the whole country; that it was extremely high, and the water upon the top was often covered with a substance like glass, and as hard as stone; (by which he undoubtedly meant ice) and moreover that a plant was found there, which would kill any person treading upon it, if he happened to have the least sore upon his foot. He concluded by telling me that he would order Hadjee Hamed to come to me in the morning, who, notwithstanding what had passed, would be the best

best person to attend me to Axum and Adowa, as he was well acquainted with both those places. He then shook us cordially by the hand, and we returned to our apartment, to the great satisfaction of a number of his chiefs, who had been long waiting at the door for an audience. The happy turn which this conference had effected in our favour, was likewise very gratifying to our whole party.

September 5.—We passed this day in our apartment, the Ras being assiduously engaged in deciding causes of considerable importance. He indeed gives up the greater part of every morning to hearing the complaints of his subjects, over whom he rules with most absolute sway, as their lives and property depend entirely upon his nod. The parties who appear before him are very vociferous, and, when provoked by their opponents, often employ such violent gesticulations, that one would suppose, that at times, even the presence of the Ras would scarcely withhold them from proceeding to blows.

Baharnegash Yasous paid us a visit in the morning with permission from the Ras, and was treated by us with all the attention in our power. He was about to return to Dixan, not daring to stay any longer at Antalow without the consent of the Ras, of whom he stood greatly in awe. I made him a present of ten dollars for his expenses on the road, informing him that I was afraid of parting with more, lest I should be unable to supply my own wants. He was very grateful for this trifle, and made many professions of friendship, the sincerity of which I had no reason to question. It is a remarkable circumstance, that two of our best friends, Yasous, and

Subagadis, were bitter enemies. We had some reason to fear that poor Yasous, during his stay at Antalow, had been but slenderly provided, even with food; for he sent to us several times for bread; a fact which indicates in how abject a state all ranks are kept by the present governor of Tigré. Hadjee Hamed paid us a short visit, and positively denied having told the Ras that he had been induced to absent himself for fear of his life.

I sent to the Ras in the evening, to remind him of my intended journey to Axum. He informed me in return, that he had fixed Monday next for our departure, on which day he intended to accompany me as far as Mucullah, where a celebrated church stands, at which solemn prayers were to be put up for the success of the ensuing campaign. I told him that I had not before so understood him, but that it was the more agreeable to me, as I was anxious to see the chief from Buré before I left Antalow, which I should now probably have an opportunity of doing.

I this day prepared a letter for Lord Valentia to be sent by Mr. Carter, and finished some more of my sketches. Much rain fell, which made the air cold. The thermometer at noon was only 61°.

September 6.—It being fast-day with the inhabitants, we received a citron and a quantity of wheaten bread from the Ras. I dispatched a message this morning, requesting that the priest might be sent for, from whom I was anxious to procure information concerning the history of this country. The Ras replied, that he was at present much engaged, but that he would send for the priest, and as soon as the hall was cleared, would give me an audience. After some time I took
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the liberty of sending in another message; but notwithstanding all my requests and remonstrances, I was unable to get a sight either of the Ras, or the priest, during the whole day.

At five o'clock Hadjee Hamed again visited me, and after a preamble, in which he denied having before refused to accompany me to Axum, he at length told me, that he intended to quit my service, having hitherto received no compensation for his trouble. I told him, that it had always been my intention to make him a suitable present; but that with the English there was also a great distinction between making presents, and paying. I begged, therefore, to know whether he had received any thing from the Ras. He replied, that he was indeed in the yearly pay of the Ras, and had attended upon us in consequence of his orders; but that at the same time, he had been informed that he would receive from us handsome presents. Upon this I said, that if I could procure any money upon a bill in my possession, drawn upon the Ras by Currum

Chund, I would immediately give him what I had at first intended; but, that if I should be deceived in this expectation, it would be much more convenient if he would go with me to Andowa, where I probably might, by negotiating the bill, raise a fresh supply of money, as the stock that I had brought into the country was nearly exhausted. To this he replied, that the Ras had no money, nor should I be able to get any at Adowa, nobody in this country knowing any thing about bills of exchange. On which I answered, that if such were the case, it was the more necessary for me to be careful of the little I had left; and so ended our argument. This information proved extremely unpleasant, as our stock was then reduced to less than three hundred dollars. The conference, however, in some degree let me into their secrets, and I had no doubt but that Hadjee Hamed had been acting a double part throughout. There was rain in the middle of the day, and the air was cold, the thermometer being 60 and 61° in our room at mid-day."

PARIS AND THE PARISIAN COURT.

[From Lieutenant-Colonel Pinckney's Travels to the South of France.]

I REACHED Paris at an early hour in the afternoon; and having letters for Mr. Younge, the confidential secretary to Mr. Armstrong, immediately waited upon him, that his information might assist me as to finding suitable apartments. Lodgings in Paris are infinitely more expensive than in London, and with not one half the comfort. I did not find Mr. Younge at his house; but upon hearing my

name, his Lady received me as an expected friend, and relieved me from the necessity of further search, by informing me that Mr. Younge had expected me, and provided apartments for me in his own house. I shall have future occasion to mention, that the beautiful Lady of this gentleman was a French woman, and that he had been about six months married to her when I arrived in Paris. She was the niece of

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of the celebrated Lally Tolendal, and had all the elegance, beauty, and dignity which seems characteristic of that family. I never saw a woman whose perfect beauty excited in me at first sight such a mixed emotion of wonder, awe, and pleasure.

As my purpose in visiting France was not to see Paris, I resolved to make my stay in this gay capital as short as possible. I entered it on the Tuesday afternoon, and determined to leave it and pursue my journey into the provinces on the following Monday. I had therefore little time to see the singularities of this celebrated metropolis, but I made the best of this time, and had the advantage of Mr. Younge's knowledge and guidance.

There is no place in the world, perhaps more distinguished for literary eminence, in every part of art and science, than Paris. The literary institutions of Paris, therefore, were the objects of my first visit. Every capital has its theatres, public gardens, and palaces; but Paris alone has its public libraries on a scale of equal utility and magnificence. In Paris alone, science seems to be considered as an object of importance to mankind, and therefore as a suitable object for the protection of government. In Paris alone, to say all in a word, the poorest student, the most ragged philosopher, has all the treasures of princes at his command; the National Library opens at his call, and the most expensive books are delivered for his use.

On the morning following my arrival, Mr. Younge accompanied me to the National Library. On entering it we ascended a most superb staircase, painted by Pellegrine, by which we were led to

the library on the first floor. It consists of a suite of spacious and magnificent apartments, extending round three sides of a quadrangle. The books are ranged around the sides, according to the order of the respective subjects, and are said to amount to nearly half a million. Each division has an attending librarian, of whom every one may require the book he wishes, and which is immediately delivered to him. Being themselves gentlemen, there is no apprehension that they will accept any pecuniary remuneration; but there is likewise a strict order that no money shall be given to any of the inferior attendants. There are tables and chairs in numbers, and nothing seemed neglected, which could conduce even to the comfort of the readers.

The most complete department of the library is that of the manuscripts. This collection amounts to nearly fifty thousand volumes, and amongst them innumerable letters, and even treatises, by the early kings of France. A manuscript is shewn, as written by Louis the Fourteenth: it is entitled, "Memoirs of his own Time, written by the King himself." I much doubt, however, the authenticity of this production. Louis the Fourteenth had other more immediate concerns than writing the history of France. France is full of these literary forgeries. Every king of France, if the titles of books may be received as a proof of their authenticity, has not only written his life, but written it like a philosopher and historian, candidly confessing his errors, and abusing his ministers.

The second floor of the building contains the genealogies of the French families. They are deposited in boxes, which are labelled with

with the several family names. They are considered as public records, and are only producible in the courts of justice, in order to determine the titles to real property. No one is allowed to copy them except by the most special permission, which is never granted but to historiographers of established name and reputation. The cabinet of antiques is stated to be very rich, and, to judge by appearances, is not inferior to its reputation. The collection was made by Caylus. It chiefly consists of vases, busts, and articles of domestic use amongst the Romans. The greater part of them have been already copied as models, in the ornamenting of furniture, by the Parisian artists. This fashion indeed is carried almost to a mania. Every thing must be Greek and Roman, without any reference to nature or propriety. For example, what could be so absurd as the natural realization of some of these capricious ornaments? What lady would choose to sleep in a bed, up the pillars of which serpents were crawling? Yet is such realization the only criterion of taste and propriety.

The cabinet of engravings detained us near two hours. The portefeuilles containing the prints are distributed into twelve classes: Some of these divisions invited us to a minute inspection. Such was the class containing the French fashions from the age of Clovis to Louis the Sixteenth. In another class was the costume of every nation in the world; in a third, portraits of eminent persons of all ages and nations; and in a fourth, a collection of prints relating to public festivals, cavalcades, tournaments, coronations, royal funerals,

1809.

&c. France is the only kingdom in the world which possesses a treasure like this, and which knows how to estimate it at its proper value.

From the National Library we drove to the Athenée, a library and lecture institution, supported by voluntary subscription. It is much of the same nature as an institution of a similar kind in London, termed the British Institute; but the French Athenæum has infinitely the advantage. The subscription is cheaper, being about four louis annually, and the lectures are more elegant, if not more scientific. There are usually three lectures daily; the first on sciences, and the other two on belles lettres. The lecture on science is considered as very able, but those on the belles lettres were merely suited, as I understood, to French frivolity. The rooms were so full as to render our stay unpleasant; and we thereby lost an anatomy lecture, which was about to commence. I should not forget to mention, that all the Parisian journals and magazines, and many of the German periodical works, were lying on the tables, and the library seemed altogether as complete as it was comfortable. The subscribers are numerous, and the institution itself in fashion. How long it will so last, no one will venture to predict.

The library of the Pantheon and that of the Institute finished our morning's occupation. They are both on the same scale and nearly on the same general plan as the National Library. The library of the Institute, however, is only open to foreigners and the members of the Institute. The Institute holds its sitting every month, and accord-

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ing to all report, is then frivolous enough. I had not an opportunity of being present at one of these sittings, but from what I heard, I did not much regret my disappointment.

We returned home to dress for dinner. Mr. Younge informed me, that he expected a very large party in the evening, chiefly French, and as his lady herself was a French woman, and had arranged her domestic establishment accordingly, I felt some curiosity.

About eight, or nearer nine, Mr. Younge, and myself, with two or three others of the dinner company, were summoned up to the drawing-room. The summons itself had something peculiar. The doors of the parlour, which were folding, were thrown open, and two female attendants, dressed like vestals, and holding torches of white wax, summoned us by a low curtsy, and preceded us up the great staircase to the doors of the anti-chamber, where they made another salutation, and took their station on each side. The anti-chamber was filled with servants, who were seated on benches fixed to the wall, but who did not rise on our entry. Some of them were even playing at cards, others at dominos, and all of them seemed perfectly at their ease. The anti-chamber opened by an arched door-way into a handsome room, lighted by a chandelier of the most brilliant cut glass; the pannels of the room were very tastily painted, and the glasses on each side very large, and in magnificent frames. The further extremity of this room opened by folding doors into the principal drawing-room, where the company were collected. It was brilliantly lighted, as well by patent lamps, as

by a chandelier in the middle. The furniture had a resemblance to what I had seen in fashionable houses in England. The carpet was of red baize, with a Turkish border, and figured in the middle like a harlequin's jacket. The principal novelty was a blue ribbon which divided the room lengthways, the one side of it being for the dancers, the other for the card-players. The ribbon was supported at proper distances by white staves, similar to those of the court ushers.

The ball had little to distinguish it from the balls of England and America, except that the ladies danced with infinitely more skill, and therefore with more grace. The fashionable French dancing is exactly that of our operas. They are all figurantes, and care not what they exhibit, so as they exhibit their skill. I could not but figure to myself the confusion of an English girl, were she even present at a French assembly. Yet so powerful is habit, that not only did the ladies seem insensible, but even the gentlemen, such as did not dance, regarded them with indifference.

Cotillons and waltzes were the only dances of the evening. The waltzes were danced in couples, twenty or thirty at a time. The measure was quick, and all the parties seemed animated. I cannot say that I saw any thing indecorous in the embraces of the ladies and their partners, except in the mere act itself; but the waltz will never become a current fashion in England or America.

There is no precedence in a French assembly except amongst the military. This is managed with much delicacy. Every group is thrown as much as possible into a circle.

circle. The tables are all circular, and cotillons are chiefly preferred from having this quality.

I did not join the card-players; there were about half a dozen tables, and the several parties appeared to play very high. When the game, or a certain number of games were over, the parties rose from their seats, and bowing to any whom they saw near them, invited them to succeed them in their seats. These invitations were sometimes accepted, but more frequently declined. The division of the drawing-room, set apart for the card-players, served rather as a promenade for the company who did not dance; they here ranged themselves in a line along the ribbon, and criticised the several dancers. Some of these spectators seemed most egregious fops. One of them, with the exception of his linen, was dressed completely in purple silk or satin, and another in a rose-coloured silk coat, with white satin waistcoat and small-clothes, and white silk stockings. The greater part of the ladies were dressed in fancy habits from the antique. Some were sphinxes, some vestals, some Dians, half a dozen Minervas, and a score of Junos and Cleopatras. One girl was pointed out to me as being perfectly *à l'Anglaise*. Her hair, perfectly undressed, was combed off her forehead, and hung down her back in its full length behind. She reminded me of a school-boy, playing without his hat.

We were summoned to the supper table about three in the mornings. This repast was a perfect English dinner. Soup, fish, poultry and ragouts, succeeded each other in almost endless variety. A fruit-basket was served round by

the servants, together with the bread-basket, and a small case of liqueurs was placed at every third plate. Some of these were contained in glass figures of cupids, in which case, in order to get at the liqueur, it was necessary to break off a small globule affixed to the breast of the figure. The French confectioners are more ingenious than delicate in these contrivances; but the French ladies seem better pleased with such conceit in proportion to their intelligible references. Some of these naked Cupids, which were perfect in all their parts, were handed from the gentlemen to the ladies, and from the ladies to each other, and as freely examined and criticised, as if they had been paintings of birds. The gentlemen, upon their parts, were equally as facetious upon the naked Venuses; and a swan affixed to a Leda, was the lucky source of innumerable questions and answers. Every thing, in a word, is tolerated which can in any way be passed into an equivoque. Their conversation in this respect resembles their dress — no matter how thin that covering may be, so that there be one.

So much for a French assembly, or fashionable rout, which certainly excels an English one in elegance and fancy, as much as it falls short of it in substantial mirth. The French, it must be confessed, infinitely excel every other nation in all things connected with spectacle, and more or less this spectacle pervades all their parties. They dance they converse, they sing, for exhibition, and as if they were on the stage. Their conversation, therefore, has frequently more wit than interest, and their dancing more vanity than mirth. They seem in

both respects to want that happy carelessness which pleases by being pleased. A Frenchwoman is a figurante even in her chit-chat.

It may be expected that I did not omit to visit the theatres. Mr. Younge accompanied me successively to nearly all of them — two or three in an evening. Upon this subject, however, I shall say nothing, as every book of travels has so fully described some or other of them, that nothing in fact is further required.

I had resolved not to leave Paris, without seeing the Emperor, and being informed that he was to hold an audience on the following day, I applied to Mr. Younge to procure my formal introduction. With this purpose we waited upon General Armstrong, who sent my name to the Grand Chamberlain, with the necessary formalities. This formality is a certificate under the hand of the Ambassador, that the person soliciting the introduction has been introduced at his own Court, or that, according to the best knowledge of the Ambassador, he is not a merchant — ‘a negociant actuel.’ It may be briefly observed, however, that the French negociant answers better to the English mechanic, than to the honourable appellation, merchant. General Armstrong promised me a very interesting spectacle in the Imperial audience. “It’s the most splendid court in Europe,” said he: “the Court of London, and even of Vienna, will not bear a comparison with it.” Every one agreed with the justice of this remark, and my curiosity was strongly excited.

On the appointed day, about three o’clock, Mr. Younge accompanied me to the palace, where we were immediately conducted to a splendid saloon, which is termed

the Ambassadors’ hall. Refreshments were here handed round to the company, which was very numerous, and amongst them many German Princes in their grand court dress. The conversation became very general; those who had seen Buonaparte describing him to those who were about to be introduced. Every one agreed that he was the most extraordinary man that Europe had produced in many centuries, and that even his appearance was in no slight degree indicative of his character. “He possesses an eye,” said one gentleman, “in which Lavater might have understood a hero.” Mr. Younge confirmed this observation; and prepared me to regard him with more than common attention.

The doors of the saloon were at length thrown open, and some of the officers of the Grand Chamberlain, with white wands and embroidered robes and scarfs, bowing low to the company, invited us by waving their staves, to follow them up the grand staircase. Every one now arranged themselves, in pairs, behind their respective Ambassadors, and followed the ushers in procession, according to the precedence of their respective countries, the Imperial, Spanish, and Neapolitan Ambassadors forming the van. The staircase was lined on both sides with grenadiers of the Legion of Honour, most of whom, privates as well as officers, were arrayed in the order. The officers, as we passed, exchanged salutes with the ambassadors; and as the Imperial ambassador, who led the procession, reached the door of the anti-chamber, two trumpeters on each side played a congratulatory flourish. The ushers who had led us so far, now took their stations on each side the door, and others, in

in more splendid habits, succeeded them in the office of conducting us.

We now entered the anti-chamber, in which was stationed the regular guard of the palace. We were here saluted by the privates and officers, the Imperial guard being considered as part of the household. From the anti-chamber we passed onwards, through nearly a dozen most splendid apartments, and at length reached the presence-chamber.

My eyes were instantly in search of the Emperor, who was at the farther extremity, surrounded by a numerous circle of officers and counsellors. The circle opened on our arrival, and withdrew behind the Emperor. The whole of our company now ranged themselves, the Ambassadors in front, and their several countrymen behind their respective ministers.

Buonaparte now advanced to the Imperial Ambassador, with whom, when present, he always begins the audience. I had now an opportunity to regard him attentively. His person is below the middle size, but well composed; his fea-

tures regular, but in their *tout ensemble* stern and commanding; his complexion sallow, and his general mien military. He was dressed very splendidly in purple velvet, the coat and waistcoat embroidered with gold bees, and with the grand star of the Legion of Honour worked into the coat.

He passed no one without notice, and to all the Ambassadors he spoke once or twice. When he reached General Armstrong, he asked him whether America could not live without foreign commerce as well as France? and then added, without waiting for his answer, "There is one nation in the world which must be taught by experience, that her merchants are not necessary to the existence of all other nations, and that she cannot hold us all in commercial slavery: England is only sensible in her compters."

The audience took up little less than two hours, after which the Emperor withdrew into an adjoining apartment; and the company departed in the same order, and with the same appendages as upon their entrance."

CASTLE OF BLOIS, AND THE ADJOINING COUNTRY.

[From Lieut.-Colonel Pinckney's Travels through the South of France.]

ON the following morning we resumed our journey for Blois, a distance of thirty miles, which we proposed to reach the same day.

The country for some leagues very nearly resembled that through which we had passed on the preceding day, except that it was more thickly spread with houses, and better cultivated. Windmills

are very frequent along the whole line of the Loire, the wheat of the country being ground in the vicinity of the river, so as to be more convenient for transportation. These mills are beautifully situated on the hills and rising grounds, and add much to the cheerfulness of the scenery. The road, moreover, was as various as it was beautiful. Sometimes it passed through

through open fields, in which the peasantry were at work, to get in their harvest. Upon sight of our horses, the labourers, male and female, ceased from their work, and ran up to the carriage: some of the younger women would then present us with some wheat, barley, or whatever was the subject of their labour, accompanying it with rustic salutations, and more frequently declining than accepting any pecuniary return. This conduct of the French peasantry is a perfect contrast to what a traveller must frequently meet in America, and still more frequently in England. Amongst the inferior classes in England and America, to be a stranger is to be a subject for insult. So much I may say in justice for the French of the very lowest condition, that I never received any thing like an insult, and that they no sooner understood me to be a stranger, than they were officious in their attentions and information.

I inquired of Mr. Younge what were the wages of the labourers in this part of France. "Their wages," said he, "are very different according to the season. In harvest-time, they have as much as 36 sols, about 1s. 6d. English money. The average daily wages of the year may amount to 24 sols, or a shilling English: they are allowed moreover, three pints of the wine of the country. Their condition is upon the whole very comfortable: the greater part of them have a cow and a small slip of land. There is a great deal of common land along the whole course of the Loire, and the farmers have a practice of exchanging with the poor. The poor, for example, in many districts, have a right of common-

age, during a certain number of days, over all the common fields: the farmers having possession of these lands, and finding it inconvenient to be subject to this participation, frequently buy it off, and in exchange assign an acre or more to every cottage in the parish. These cottages are let to the labourers for life at a mere nominal rent, and are continued to their families, as long as they remain honest and industrious. There is, indeed, no such thing as parochial taxes for the relief of the poor, as in England, but distress seldom happens without being immediately relieved."

"In what manner," said I "do the French poor live?"

"Very cheaply, and yet, all things considered, very sufficiently. You who have lived almost the whole of your life in northern climates, can scarcely form any idea, what a very different kind of sustenance is required in a southern one. In Ireland, however, how many robust bodies are solely nourished on milk and potatoes: now chesnuts and grapes, and turnips and onions in France, are what potatoes are in Ireland. The breakfast of our labourers usually consists of bread and fruit, his dinner of bread and an onion, his supper of bread, milk, and chesnuts. Sometimes a pound of meat may be boiled with the onion, and a bouillé is thus made, which with management will go through the week. The climate is such as to require no expence in fuel, and very little in clothes."

In this conversation we reached Ecures, a village situated on a plain, which in its verdure, and in the fanciful disposition of some trees and groves, reminded me very strongly of an English park. This
similitude

similitude was increased by a house on the further extremity of the village: it was situated in a lawn, and entirely girt around by walnut trees, except where it fronted the road, upon which it opened by a neat palisadoed gate. I have no doubt, though I had no means of verifying my opinion, that the possessor of this estate had been in England. The lawn was freshly mown, and the flowers, the fresh-painted seats, the windows extending from the ceiling to the ground, and even the circumstance of the poultry being kept on the common, and prevented by a net-work from getting on the lawn — all these were so perfectly in the English taste, that I offered Mr. Younge any wager, that the possessor had travelled. “He is most probably a returned emigrant,” said Mr. Younge: “It is inconceivable, how much this description of men have done for France. The government, indeed, begins to understand their value, and the list of the proscribed is daily diminishing.”

From Ecures to Chousi, the country varies very considerably. The road is very good, but occasionally sandy. To make up for this heaviness, it is picturesque to a degree. The fields on each side are so small as to give them a peculiar air of snugness, and to suggest the idea to a traveller, how delightful would be a fancy cottage in such a situation. For my own part, I was continually building in my imagination. These fields were well enclosed with thick and high hedges, and ornamented with hedge-rows of chesnut and walnut trees. There was scarcely any of them but what had a foot-path on the side of the road: in others there were bye-paths which led from the

road into the country, sometimes to a village, the chimneys only of which were visible; at other times to a chateau, the gilded pinnacle of which shone afar from some distant hill. I observed several fields of flax and hemp, and we passed several cottages, in the gardens of which the flax flourished in great perfection. Mr. Younge informed me, that every peasant grew a sufficient quantity for his own use, and the females of his family worked them up into a strong, but decent-looking linen. “This is another circumstance,” said he, “which you must not forget in your comparison between the poor of France and other kingdoms. The French peasantry, and particularly the women, have more ingenuity than the English or American poor; they universally make every thing that is connected with their own clothes. Their beds, blankets, coats, and linen of all kind, are of the manufacture of their own families. The produce of the man’s labour goes clear to the purchase of food: the labour of his wife and daughters, and even a small portion of their labour, is sufficient to clothe him, and to provide him with his bed.”

We passed several groups of villagers reposing themselves under the shade: I should not indeed say reposing, for they were romping, running, and conversing, with all the characteristic merriment of the country. They saluted us respectfully as we passed them. In one of these groups was a flageolet-player: he was piping merrily, his comrades accompanying the tune with motions of their hands and neck. “Confess,” said Mademoiselle St. Sillery, “that we are a happy people: these poor creatures

“tures have been at their labour
 “since sun-rise, and yet this is the
 “way they repose themselves.”—
 “Are they never wearied?” said
 I. “Never so much so, but what
 “they can sing and dance: their
 “good humour seems to hold them
 “in the stead of the more robust
 “nerves of the north. Even labour
 “itself is not felt, where the mind
 “takes its share of the weight.”

“You are a philosopher,” said
 Mr. Younge to her, smiling.

“I am a Frenchwoman,” replied she, “and would not change
 “my cheerful flow of spirits for
 “all the philosophy and wisdom
 “in the universe. Nothing can
 “make me unhappy whilst the sun
 “shines.”

I know not whether I have before mentioned, that a great quantity of maize is cultivated in this part of the kingdom. The roofs of the cottages were covered with it, drying in the sun; the ears are of a bright golden yellow, and in the cottage gardens it had a beautiful effect. I observed, moreover, a very striking difference between the system of cultivating the flax in England and in France. In England, the richest land only is chosen; in France, every soil indiscriminately. The result of this difference is, that the flax in France is infinitely finer than in England, a circumstance which may account for the superiority of their lawns and cambrics.

We reached Chousi to an early dinner. The woman of the house apologised that she had no suitable room for so large a company, “but
 “her husband and sons were gathering apples in the orchard,
 “and if we would dine there, we
 “should find it cheerful enough.” We readily adopted this proposal, and had a very pleasant dinner un-

der an apple-tree. Mademoiselle and myself had agreed to divide between us the office of purveyor to the party. It was my part to see that the meat or poultry was not over-boiled, over-hashed, or over-roasted; and it was her's to arrange the table with the linen and plate which we brought with us. It is inconceivable how much comfort, and even elegance, resulted from this arrangement.

Mr. Younge and myself being engaged in an argument of some warmth, in which Mrs. Younge had taken part, Mademoiselle St. Sillery had given us the slip, and the carriage being ready, I had to seek her. After much trouble, I found her engaged in a childish sport with some boys and girls, the children of the landlord: the game answered to what is known in America by the name of hide and seek, and Mademoiselle St. Sillery, when I found her, was concealed in a saw-pit. I have mentioned, I believe, that this young lady was about twenty years of age; an elegant fashionable girl, and as far removed from a romp and a hoyden, as it is possible to conceive; yet was this young lady of fashion now engaged in the most puerile play, and even seemed disappointed when she was called from it. Such is the French levity, that sooner than not be in motion, the gravest and most dignified of them would join in a hunt after a butterfly. I have frequently been walking, with all possible gravity, with Mademoiselle St. Sillery, when she has suddenly challenged me to run a race, and before I could recover my astonishment, or give her an answer, has taken to her heels.

We reached Blois rather late: we had intended to have staid there only

only the night; but as it was too late to see the town, and the following morning was showery, we remained there the whole day, and very pleasantly passed the afternoon in walking over the town, and informing ourselves of its curiosities. The situation of Blois is as agreeable as that of all the other principal towns on the Loire. The main part of it is built upon a hill, which descends by a gentle declivity to the Loire; the remaining part of it is a suburb on the opposite side of the river, to which it is joined by a bridge resembling that at Kew, in England. From the hill on which the town stands, is a beautiful view of a rich and lovely country; and there is certainly not a town in France or in Europe, with the exception of Tours and Toulouse, which can command such a delightful landscape. It appeared, perhaps, more agreeable to us, as we saw it after it had been freshened by the morning rain. The structure of the town does not correspond with the beauty of its site. The streets are narrow, and the houses low. There are some of the houses, however, which are very respectable, and evidently the habitation of a superior class of inhabitants. They reminded me much of what are common in the county towns of England.

But the boast and ornament of Blois is its chateau, or castle. We employed some hours in going over it, and I shall therefore describe it with some fullness.

The situation of it is extremely commanding, and therefore very beautiful. It is built upon a rock which overhangs the Loire, all the castles upon this river being built with the evident purpose of controuling and commanding the navigation. What first struck us

very forcibly, was the variety and evident dissimilarity of the several parts. This circumstance was explained to us by our guide, who informed us that the castle was the work of several princes. The eastern and southern fronts were built by Louis the Twelfth, about the year 1520; the northern front was the work of Francis the First; and the western side of Gaston, Duke of Orleans. Every part, accordingly, has a different character. What is built by Louis the Twelfth is heavy, dark, and gothic, with small rooms, and pointed arches. The work of Francis the First is a curious specimen of the Gothic architecture in its progress, perhaps in its very act of transit into the Greek and Roman orders; and what has been done by Gaston, bears the character of the magnificent mind and bold genius of that great prince. This comparison of three different styles, on the same spot, gave me much satisfaction.

The rooms, as I have said, such as were built by Louis the Twelfth, are small; and those by Francis spacious, lofty, and boldly vaulted. Nothing astonished me more than the minor ornaments on the points of the arches; they were so grossly, so vulgarly indecent, that I was fearful the ladies might observe me as I looked at them: but such was the taste of the age. Others of the ornaments were less objectionable: they consisted of the devices of the several princes who had resided there.

We were shewn the chamber in which the celebrated Duke of Guise was assassinated, and the guide pointed out the spot on which he fell. A small chamber, or rather anti-chamber, leads to a larger apartment: the Duke had passed through the door of this anti-chamber,

chamber, and was opening the further door which leads into the larger apartment, when he was assassinated by order of Henry the Third. His body was immediately dragged into the larger apartment, and the King came to view it. "How great a man was that!" said he, pointing to his prostrate body. Historians are still divided on the quality of this act, whether it is to be considered as a just execution, or as a cowardly assassination. Considering the necessary falsehood, and breach of faith, under which it must have been perpetrated, the moralist can have no hesitation to execrate it as a murder.

We passed from this part of the castle to the tower at the western extremity, called *La Tour de chateau Regnaud*, and so called, because a seigniory of that name, though distant twenty-one miles, is visible from its summit. The Cardinal of Guise, being seized on the same day in which his brother was assassinated, was imprisoned in this castle, and after passing a night in the dungeons, was executed on the day following. The dungeons are the most horrible holes which it is possible to conceive: the descent to them entirely indisposed us from going down. Imagine a dark gloomy room, itself a horrible dungeon, and in the centre of the floor a round hole, of the size and shape of those on the paved foot-paths in the streets of London, for shooting coals into the cellars. Such is the descent to these dungeons; and in such a place did the great and proud Cardinal of Guise terminate a life of turmoil and ambition.

We next visited the *Salle des Etats*, or the States'-hall, so called, because the States General were there assembled by Henry the

Third: it is a large and lofty room, but the part of it which chiefly attracts the attention of travellers is the fire-place, where the bodies of the Guises were reduced to ashes on the day following their murder. It is not, however, easy to conceive, why vengeance should be carried so far.

The western front of the castle, which was built by Gaston, Duke of Orleans, is in every respect worthy of that great prince, and of the architect employed by him, the illustrious Mansard. This architect laboured three years upon this front, and having already spent three hundred and thirty thousand livres, informed the prince, that it would require one hundred thousand more to render it habitable. The prince, however, eager both to encourage the artist, and to have the work finished, could not muster up the money, which in that age was an immense sum; the front, therefore, was left in the state in which it now remains. It is as much to the credit of the Duke as to that of the architect, that this noble front constituted his pride, and that he felt the value of this work of Mansard.

The gardens of the castle are worthy of the structure to which they are attached: Henry the Fourth divided them by a gallery into the upper and lower gardens, but nothing now remains of this gallery but the ruins. The garden itself is now sold or let to private persons.

Blois has several other buildings which are worthy of the attention of a leisurely traveller: amongst these is the college, which formerly belonged to the Jesuits, and which is at present a national school. The church attached to the college combines every order of

architecture: there are two splendid monuments, moreover; the one of Gaston, Duke of Orleans, the other to a daughter of this prince. The courts, likewise, in which the police is administered, are not unworthy of a cursory attention; they are very ancient, having been built by the former Counts of Blois.

We were shewn likewise the aqueducts: the waters rise from a deep subterraneous spring, and are con-

veyed in a channel cut in a rock. This channel is said to be of Roman construction, and from its characteristic boldness, and even greatness, it most probably is so. Whence is it, that this people communicated their characteristic energy even to trifles? The channel of the aqueduct empties itself into a reservoir adjoining the city walls, whence they are distributed in pipes through all quarters of the city."

CUSTOMS AND MANNERS OF THE ARABIANS.

[From Lord VALENTIA'S Travels.]

"**MOCHA**, as well as the other towns belonging to the Imaum, is governed by a Dola.—Formerly, an Arab of high rank was appointed to this office; but now, that the authority of the sovereign is greatly weakened, it has been considered as more prudent to give the situation to a slave, who can always be removed, and from whom it is more safe to take the profits of his government. The Sheriffe of Abou Arish is an instance of the danger of appointing an Arab of the Prophet's family, who are, in fact, an hereditary nobility, that still consider themselves as entitled to all power among the Mussulmauns. He was appointed to Loheia by the present Imaum, and no sooner reached his government than he prepared to rebel, and with very little difficulty resisted all attempts to drive him out. He has now become a Wahabee, and perfectly secured his independence. The second officer in the town is the Bas Kateb, or Secretary of State. This office is always held by an Arab, who is considered as a

licenced spy of the Dola. The third is the Cadi, or Judge; and these three compose the Divan, where all public business is conducted, and where the Dola has only a vote.

The government of Mocha is the best in the gift of the Imaum; not from the salary, which is trifling, but from the large sums which he is able to squeeze from the Banians, and foreign merchants. The present Dola was a slave of the Vizier; but in consideration of his good conduct, he has received a title from the Imaum, and with it his freedom. He is avaricious and tyrannical; but he has realized a considerable revenue for the Imaum, as well as secured a great treasure for himself. He invented a new method of extorting money from the Banians, by confining them in a room, and fumigating them with sulphur, till they complied with his demands. Mr. Pringle has frequently been obliged to complain at Sana of the obstructions he has put in the way of commerce, and probably he would soon be recalled, and

and obliged to disgorge his plunder. The Arabs have a whimsical apologue on the subject. They say, that when a Dola is appointed, he weighs nothing; that on going out of the gates of Sana, he weighs a frasel; that on arriving at his government, he weighs two; and goes on growing heavier and heavier, during his stay; but that he dwindles and dwindles as he returns, till the gates of Sana reduce him to his primitive leanness.

The present Cadi is a most respectable character, and I am assured that he would consider it as an insult, were a fee to be offered to him. The consequence is, that Mocha is in general a peaceable town, and, during my whole residence there, no act of violence took place. The police is strict at night; and if any person should be found out of his house after the Dola had retired to rest, a period that is marked by the drums beating before his door, he would be conducted to prison. Opposite to the British factory is a collection of thatched huts, which answer this purpose, where a prisoner lives as comfortably as he can do in any part of the town. At present, a large number of people are confined there, who quarrelled with the Vizier at Sana about religion, broke his windows, and committed several other outrages. They were originally confined in the island of Zeila, but the Dola there, finding that the violent heat of the climate injured their health, humanely sent them back to Mocha, where they still remain, without a hope of release. They are fanatics, and regularly chant their evening prayers in a plaintive, and by no means unpleasant manner.

The Arabs, in general, seem to care very little about their religion.

Friday is no otherwise distinguished, than by the flag of the Imauni being hoisted on the forts, and the troops being paraded in the square, whilst the lower orders carry on their usual occupations. Money will, at any time, induce an Arab to wave his prejudices; of which a curious instance occurred during my first residence at the British factory. Captain Keys had given a pig to Mr. Pringle, which the Lascars of the *Antelope* refused to bring on shore. Some fishermen were, however, easily procured, who, for the usual fee of a dollar, brought it safe to the factory. Admiral Blanket, the chief of the fishermen, attended it himself in a state of perfect intoxication; but this was probably done to diminish his scruples in touching so unclean an animal.

A longer residence among the Arabs settled in towns, has only increased the detestation and contempt, with which I behold them. They have all the vices of civilized society, without having quitted those of a savage state. Scarcely possessed of a single good quality, they believe themselves superior to every other nation; and, though inveterate cowards, they are cruel and revengeful. Superstitious followers of Mahommed, they do not obey one moral precept of the Koran; and though they perform the prescribed ablutions with strict regularity, yet I never heard of a vice, natural or unnatural, which they do not practise and avow; and, though they pray at regulated times to the Deity, yet they also address their prayers to more saints than are to be found in the Romish calendar. Hypocrisy and deceit are so natural to them, that they prefer telling a lie, to speaking the truth, even when not urged to do so by any

any motive or interest. To this they are trained from their youth. and it forms a principal part of their education. As a government, they are extortioners and tyrants; as traders, they are fraudulent and corrupt; as individuals, they are sunk into the lowest state of ignorance and debauchery; and, in short, require to be civilized more than the inhabitants of the South Seas.

The difference between this character of the Arabs, and that given by Mr. Niebuhr, may at first sight appear extraordinary; but the difference is more in appearance than reality, as it is evident that he takes his opinion from the reception he had met with among the wandering tribes. He seems, however, to have imbibed a partiality for the nation in general, which the conduct of the Dola of Mocha, in particular, by no means justified; and he has attributed virtues to them, which I cannot admit they possess. Whatever his reception might have been among the tented tribes; in Yemen, it was neither hospitable or generous. Many, even in that country, are charitable; but it is an outward duty of religion, and never extends beyond their own sect. I am perfectly ready to concur with him in his character of the wandering tribes, who, I believe, are less civilized, and have fewer vices. The virtue of hospitality, so necessary in the barren deserts which they occupy, is completely theirs; and their bravery, and strict sense of honour, elevated them far above their countrymen who reside in cities. I should feel happy in supposing that this were owing to their food being less contaminated by the mixture of slaves from every nation, a degradation from which they are preserved by their poverty;

a poverty, however, that is invaluable, as it secures their freedom.

The Arab has essentially altered his conduct towards Christians, who may now walk about the streets of their towns without being liable to insult. The different events which have taken place in India, and have so conspicuously elevated the Cross above the Crescent, have struck a panic to the heart of the Mussulman throughout the east. It cannot be supposed that he has beheld the change without repining; but it has forced upon his mind a conviction of the superior power of the Christian, whom he hates as he ever did; but now fears, instead of despising. The English have been the chief instruments in producing this change, and are therefore less popular in Arabia than their rivals, the French. Arabia was for a long time too remote from the scene of action to form any idea of the British power: the veil was removed by the expedition to Egypt, when they were supported by the firman of the Grand Seignior, ordering them to destroy any of the ports in the Red Sea that did not afford them protection; and when it was evident that they had the power to put the order into execution. Still, the neglect, or timid caution of our officers, in submitting to the insult of having their seamen stolen from them, and circumcised, in defiance of their remonstrances, prevented the Arabs from feeling our real power; and this was heightened into contempt, by the not resenting of the affronts which were heaped on Sir Home Popham, who endeavoured to make his way to Sana as an Ambassador, but was obliged to return, as I have been informed by Mr. Pringle, in no very pleasant manner; though attended, when

he

he set out by a guard of one hundred marines, which ought either not to have been taken, or to have been employed in protecting him from insult. The defeated soldiers of Scindiah at length returned in hundreds, and, after great difficulty, convinced the Dola, and the inhabitants of Mocha, that the English actually could, and would fight: a fact which Mr. Pringle had found it impossible to make them credit.

A calm and moderate firmness would, I have no doubt, easily procure, for Christians in Arabia, every immunity and privilege which, as strangers, they could require. A single ship of war could at any time stop, not only the whole trade of Mocha, but also the necessary supplies of provisions from Berbera. This would force a compliance with the reasonable demand, that the deserters should be given up; and this once done, the idea of impunity would be done away, and not a seaman would ever afterwards place any confidence in their threats. A disgraceful prohibition also ought to be removed; a Christian is not permitted to go out at the Mecca gate, although the Jews and Banians are. This is the more singular, as the two latter are considered by Mussulmauns as inferior in character to the former, the Jews not believing in Christ, nor the Banians in Moses or Christ, who are both revered by the followers of Mahommed.

The British factory, though one of the best houses in the town, has many inconveniencies, independently of its construction, the chief of which is its vicinity to the Dola's stables, where the asses keep up an incessant braying, particularly if any noise in the night excite their attention. The horses are, in the daytime, brought out into the streets,

where they are fastened by their hind legs with chains to the ground, and by the head to the wall, so that it requires some precaution to pass between them, and still more to enter the gates of the factory, from the crowd of children belonging to the stable-keepers, who demand, rather than petition for, charity. The horses of Arabia are celebrated for their superior qualities; and certainly I saw some at Mocha of uncommon beauty, particularly about the head and neck. The Inaum is the only horse-dealer in his dominions, and these were his property, being sent down to Mocha for sale. The price rarely exceeds one thousand dollars. The Arab system of riding totally destroys a horse in a very short time. He is taught only to walk, canter, or gallop, as at the menage; and when at full speed is made to stop short by means of a strong bit, which ruins his mouth in a year or two, while the force employed throws him on his haunches, and very frequently founders him at an early age. The asses are of two species; the one has a stripe of black down the shoulders, and cross-bands of black on the legs; the other is like the Spanish, and as fine a breed; the mules are consequently very handsome.

The climate of Mocha is more sultry than any I have yet experienced, in consequence of its vicinity to the arid sands of Africa, over which the S. E. wind blows for so long a continuance, as not to be cooled in its short passage over the sea below the straits of Bab-el-mandel. This monsoon continues above eight months in the year with such force, as frequently to render all communication between the vessels in the road, and the shore, impossible. For the three or four months

months that the opposite monsoon from the N.W. blows, the heat is much greater, and the airs are light. These winds extend only to Jibbel Aïr; from which place to above Jidda they may be considered as variable for the whole year, though the prevailing one is generally from the same point in which the monsoon blows in the lower part of the Gulf. Above Cossier an extraordinary change takes place, for, hence to Suez the wind blows for rather more than eight months from the N.W. At Mocha, during the prevalence of the S.E. wind, a thicker haze covers the opposite coast; but the moment the north-easter commences, the opposite mountains and islands gradually appear. The high land of Assab is visible from Mocha, as given in the drawing, although its distance was ascertained to be seventy miles, by a set of cross bearings taken from the Island of Perim. This proves that there is a great degree of refraction in the atmosphere, of which indeed we have still more positive proof, by the appearance of several other headlands at the same time, and which we knew were much too low to be seen directly at the distance they actually were: a very singular phenomenon also occurred, which has been taken notice of by the ancients—the sun set like a pillar of fire, having totally lost its usual round form.

The country, in the vicinity of Mocha, is more dreary than can well be conceived: to the foot of the mountains it is an arid sand, covered with an efflorescence, and producing in abundance the common Mimosa, and a species of Sarcocornia, whose embrowned leaves and burnt appearance, give little idea of vegetation. Near the town the date-trees are in profusion; but

their stunted growth shows the difference between the soil of Arabia, and the fertile plains of India: even where a brackish well has given an opportunity of raising a few vegetables, the scene is still cheerless, from the fence of dried reeds, which is alone visible. Mr. Salt, by the permission of the Dola, paid a visit to Mossa, and intended to have gone on to Beit-el-Fakih, but was recalled in consequence of the disputes running high respecting the renegadoes. He describes the country, even there, as uninteresting, though the mountains were fine, and there were fields of grain, and other appearances of cultivation. This is owing to the river, which rises in the hills, and at one season is full of water, though it, in general, loses itself in the Tehama, without reaching the sea. Once, indeed, it found its way to Mocha, where it carried away a considerable part of the Jews' town, which is built in its usually unfrequented bed. Had Mocha not existed, and had a vessel by accident approached the coast at that time, the mariners might justly have reported, that a river of fresh water there emptied itself into the sea. Future navigators would have positively contradicted them; and would have been accused as liars, without having merited the title. I think it probable that the accounts of the river Charles above Jidda, and the river Frat opposite to it, have originated in a similar circumstance. By the influence of money Mr. Salt experienced a civil reception: he drew the town, of which I have given an engraving; and also the Dola's son, who did the honours of the place, his father being absent.

The singular appearance of the flat Tahama of barren sand, extending

tending from the mountains to the sea, has given rise to the supposition, that it has been formed by gradual encroachments on that element; a supposition which is greatly confirmed by the strata that Mr. Pringle passed through in sinking a well, within the walls of the factory, and which are as follows:

1. Rubbish of buildings, 8 feet, the level of high water.
2. Clay, 2 ditto
3. Sea mud and wreck, 1 ditto
4. Broken madrepore and shells, 6 ditto
5. Sea sand and shells, 11 ditto

In this measure he still persists, though the water oozes in so fast, that he has been obliged to sink a frame of wood, to keep it out. In the third measure the water was mephitic, and extremely offensive. As the depth increases it becomes less brackish, and at present one hundred pounds of water yield about one pound of salt. It is evident, therefore, that at Mocha the Tahama, to the depth of twenty-eight feet, is composed of marine productions, except indeed the clay, the position of which seems to me most extraordinary. The harbour of Mocha, formed by the two forts. and the spits of land on which they are built, is still gradually filling up. Dows cannot now lie in it; and the sea, which once washed the walls, is now at some little distance. A long period has shown this gradual encroachment still more in the ancient harbour of Okelis, close to the straits of Babel-mandel, where the Egyptian fleet could once lie, but where there is at present little more than a foot of water.

The celebrated ancient mart of Mossa was probably at Mocha, from the appropriate description

handed down to us of its excellent anchorage on a sandy bottom. But if so, it ceased to exist for many generations, till the accidental residence of a hermit, and the discovery of the coffee, again brought it into notice. The history of the accidental landing of the crew of a ship, bound from India to Jidda, of the visit paid by the Captain to Sheik Shadelei, and the consequent sale of his cargo to the Arabs, who were followers of the Sheik, was narrated to me by the Hadje Abdallah, and confirmed by the Bas Kateb, to whom I applied for information. Mocha, according to these learned natives, was not in existence four hundred years ago; from which period we know nothing of it, till the discoveries and conquests of the Portuguese in India opened the Red Sea to the natives of Europe. They first entered it in 1513, under Don Alphonso Albuquerque, with an intention of uniting themselves with the Abyssinians against their common enemy the Mussulmauns, but returned without having reaped any advantage. In 1538, Sooli-maun Basha, commanding the fleet of the Soldan of Egypt, stopped at Mocha, on his return from his disgraceful expedition against Diu. It is only mentioned in his voyage, as a castle, and was therefore probably a place of little importance, and had a Turk for its governor. In 1609, when the Red Sea was first visited by the English under Alexander Sharpey, Mocha had greatly risen in importance, and had become the great mart for the trade between India and Egypt. The Turkish governor was, at that time, a man of prudence and liberality, so that the English traded without any injury; but this successor, in the following year, had very

very different ideas, as Sir Henry Middleton experienced to his cost, who was betrayed, and kept as a prisoner for some time. These circumstances were too inimical to trade to admit of its continuance, and there was only a Dutch factory at Mocha, when Monsieur de la Marveille visited it in 1708, and established a factory for his countrymen. Between that period and 1738 the English must have arrived, as, according to Niebuhr, they were there when the French bombarded the town, and obliged the Dola to pay his debts and reduce the duties from three to two and a half per cent. Mocha was probably then at its highest state of prosperity, when the English, the French, and the Dutch, carried on a regular trade with it, and by means of the navigation round the Cape of Good Hope the expense of the freight of coffee was much lessened, and the consumption of it in Europe began proportionally to increase.

From the fair of Berbera, Arabia draws her supplies of ghee, and a great number of slaves, camels, horses, mules, and asses; but the profit on these articles is much less than on the sale of India goods, which is the return made to the inhabitants of Africa, for the whole produce of the country thus brought to Berbera. Many chiefs of the interior, and particularly the sovereign of Hanim, who lives twenty days journey west of Berbera, send down caravans of their own, to purchase, with gold and ivory, the manufactures of India. It is much to be regretted, that the sale is at present clogged by the unreasonable profits of the Banians, which of course greatly diminish the consumption. Were a regular trade carried on at Aden, whose sove-

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reign would rejoice at the adoption of any plan likely to increase his small revenue, and the profit reduced to about forty or fifty per cent, the consumption would probably increase ten fold, for, at present, the Africans have no limit to their purchases of these articles, except the amount of their sales of ivory, gold, &c. The profits of the Banians would indeed be diminished, but the honest manufacturer would be a gainer in an equal proportion.

It is a well-known fact that even in India, the muslins of British manufacture find a considerable market; and a few pieces of a checked pattern, which I had in Arabia, were universally admired. It is probable, therefore, that, if these were sent out to Aden, they would find a ready sale; as would, I have no doubt, our printed and quilted calicoes. The different articles of hard ware, which are much wanted by every uncivilized nation, at present, only reach the eastern coast of Africa by the way of Bombay and Mocha, though the estimates, that I have before made, respecting the return of Arabian articles to Europe, show equally, that British manufactures could be carried to Mocha at a little more than half the price they at present obtain.

The Samaulies, who inhabit the whole coast from Gardafui to the Straits, and through whose territories the whole produce of the interior of Africa must consequently reach Arabia, have been represented by Mr. Bruce, and many others, as a savage race, with whom it would be dangerous to have connection. I think that this is an unjust accusation, and is sufficiently disproved by the extent of their inland trade, their great fairs, and

their

their large exports in their own vessels. A great number of them live close to Mocha, and are a peaceable inoffensive race. Some Indian vessels were wrecked on the coast between Mount Felix and Zeila; the chief immediately seized all the property, but he not only saved the lives of the crews, but maintained them till they were sent to Mocha. This might have led to a closer intercourse, had it not been for the misconduct of the commander of a small vessel, who, during the Egyptian expedition, stopped at the same place, and tried to force the chief to bring water on board, without being paid for it. On receiving a civil refusal to this unreasonable request, he sent his people on shore to storm the town. The inhabitants laid an ambush, and cut them all off. The chief immediately wrote a letter to Mr. Pringle, which I saw; in it he professed his good will towards the English, and cited his conduct towards the wrecked mariners as a proof of his not wishing to injure that nation, but stated, that it was out of his power to oblige his people to comply with the unreasonable request of the Captain, and that the destruction of the assailants was only owing to their own misconduct. I fear that this is not a solitary instance, and that, on every side of Africa, the natives have occasionally had reason to consider a stranger and an enemy as the same thing.

In their persons the Samaulies are neither Negroes nor Arabs. They have woolly hair, drawn out into points, in every direction, but their noses are not flat. They are finely limbed, with a very dark skin, and beautifully white teeth. The expression of their countenance is neither fierce nor unpleasing. I

consulted several of the respectable merchants of Aden and Mocha, respecting the possibility of penetrating into the interior of Africa, by the caravans which return from Berbera, and they uniformly agreed that, by securing the friendship of one of the Samauli chiefs, and learning the language, an European might, in his own character, make the journey in safety. It would certainly however be more wise that he should pass for a Mussulman, but not for an Arab, a nation whom they detest. I think it probable that a trade is carried on westward from Hanim, by which a communication exists with the nations in the vicinity of the mountains of Komri. If so, a traveller might at length reach the sources of the Nile, by departing from Berbera, which is the position nearest to them, that is accessible to Europeans.

The riches of Yemen may be considered as solely owing to its coffee, for it is from the sale of that article, that its merchants receive the dollars in Egypt, with which they purchase the manufactures and spices of India. In former times the balance of bullion, which was remitted to this latter country, amounted to twelve lac of dollars per annum. This year it will not be above two lac, a falling-off which is chiefly owing to the increase of the Muscat merchant vessels, which, under the protection of their neutral flag, carry rice to the Isle of France, and bring thence prize goods, which they purchase at half the original cost; by these means, not only injuring the regular trade of Surat and Bombay, but greatly encouraging the privateering of the Isle of France, whose inhabitants would otherwise have no means of disposing

ing of the property they capture. It is even believed, that frequently the Muscat flag is only a cover, and the goods thus exported to Arabia, are bona fide French property. Arabia itself consumes only a small proportion of its imports; the residue, after paying a duty of three per cent. on the import, and even on the export, is sent, by ships, to Massowah, Jidda, and Aden, for the fair of Berbera. On the returns of gold and ivory, a very considerable profit is also made by the Banians, who nearly monopolise the whole trade.

The number of these Gentoo merchants, at present resident at Mocha, is about two hundred and fifty; there are also about thirty at Beit-el-Fakih, and fifty at Zebeid. Most of them come from Jeygat, a piratical state at the entrance of the Gulf of Cutch; they come here, and stay till they have made a sufficient property to live comfortably at home. They never bring their wives with them, from dread of their being insulted by the Arabs. Nothing but the great profits attending their trade, could induce a person of any property to lead so wretched a life; yet Devagé, the Company's broker, is considered as sufficiently rich to command three or four lacs of dollars at a moment's notice. The Arabs are perfectly aware of their riches, and frequently extort money from them, particularly when about to return to India. Devagé's brother, who was before his departure the head of the house, escaped on board an English vessel, without having undergone the last squeeze which the Dola intended to give him. Devagé, to avoid punishment, was obliged to prove, that he had been carried on board against his will. The Gentoos lived accord-

ing to their own laws, and show a great obedience to the chief Banian, who acts for them in all public concerns. In private life they are inoffensive and timid; and even their religious prejudice, which prevents their destroying any thing that has life in it, is amiable. As traders, however, it is impossible to speak well of them, for no tie of honesty binds them. One merchant boasted to Mr. Pringle, that, in a sale of silk, he had made ten frassels turn out twelve and a half. This, however, was after that gentleman had detected their frauds, and had procured proper weights for the use of the factory.

A very large kind of dow, which is called a Trankey, is employed in the trade between India and Mocha. These vessels have the privilege of not paying any duty to the Imaum, while a ship that lands any part of her cargo, is obliged to pay five hundred dollars, and a brig three hundred. This prevents the vessels that come for coffee, from bringing any articles for sale, as a whole cargo would not be sold under some months, and the profits upon a few pieces of muslin or cloth would not equal the five hundred dollars. It is, however, "an old custom, and cannot be changed."

Yemen has probably reached its greatest prosperity, and may indeed be considered as on the decline. The coffee country is gradually falling into the hands of the Sheriffe of Abou Arish, who has become a follower of Abdul Waheb, and has opened the port of Loheia for the exportation of coffee. The Sultaun of Aden also procures a small quantity, and will probably increase his territories at the expence of the Imaum. His port is so far superior to any other in

Arabia, that I cannot but believe it will soon become the mart for all that is exported, except to Suez. The rise of Mecha has been owing to accidental circumstances, which now no longer operate, and its trade will probably remove to Loheia and Aden. As the dynasty of the present Imaum may be thus at an end, I have been induced to bring down the history of his family from the time of Mr. Niebuhr, to whose accuracy on this and on every other occasion, I am bound to pay the tribute of approbation.

According to Mr. Niebuhr, in the year 1763, the eleventh Imaum, El Mahadi Abbas, reigned in Sana. His eldest son Abdallah died before him; according therefore to the usual Mussulmaun custom, he was succeeded by his second son Ali, the present Imaum, who assumed the title of Elmansoor, on his accession in the year 1774. El Mahadi Abbas left, beside Ali, the following issue. 3d, Khassem. 4th, Mohammed. 5th, Achmed. 6th, Yusuf. 7th, Ismael. 8th, Hassan. 9th, Hossein. 10th, Abdulrachman. 11th, Jachia. 12th, Ibrahim. 13th, Soolimaun. 14th, Saduc. 15th, Salauddien. 16th, Saleb. 17th, Yacoub. 18th, Sherifuddien. 19th, Shumsuddien. 20th, Abdulkerim. The present Imaum has only nine sons. 1st, Achmed. 2d, Hassan. 3d, Abdallah. 4th, Mohammed. 5th, Jachia. 6th, Ismael. 7th, Khassem. 8th, Abbas. 9th, Salid. Achmed has three sons, Khassem, Ibrahim, and Abdallah; while his brother Abdallah has already fifteen. It is supposed that at the death of the Imaum the succession will be disputed by Achmed and Abdallah; the former, though the eldest, is the son of an Abyssinian slave; he is rich, but avaricious, is the fa-

vourite of his father, and has great power as commandant of the military force at Sana. The latter is the son of an Arab wife, is in his manner open, in his character liberal, and consequently a great favourite of the soldiers.

The Imaum is at least seventy-eight years old, and fast approaching to dotage; he will not hear of any danger, and endeavours still to amuse himself in his sooty harem of four hundred Abyssinian slaves. The Vizier attaches himself to the party of Abdallah, though, before the Imaum, he treats them with equal respect. As the powers of the old man decay, their hostilities become more open, and the Hadji Abdallah informed me, that, during his residence at Sana, they actually drew their jambeas on each other in their father's presence, but were separated by the Vizier. If, while disputing about the succession, they do not exert themselves to raise a force sufficient to resist the Wahabee, they will have no kingdom to succeed to. The whole disposable force of Yemen did not then exceed six hundred horse, and three thousand foot; not a tenth part of the force that their enterprising enemy could bring against them.

Although Sir Home Popham failed in his attempt to reach Sana, Mr. Pringle, the present acting resident, has twice visited that capital, without meeting with any insults or difficulties. He informed me that Sana is in latitude 15° 20'. N. and longitude 46° 45'. east of Greenwich, and described the town as handsomely built, and surrounded by gardens. The palace is a residence not unworthy of a prince, and a considerable degree of dignity and splendour is kept up. On his first visit he carried presents to the amount of thirty thousand rupees,

pees, in shawls, satins, muslins, and other rich articles, for the harem. These were extremely acceptable to the Imaum, and Mr. Pringle's reception was consequently most gracious. In his second visit he unfortunately changed his plan, and took handsome sabres and pistols, which were by no means suited to the present taste of the Imaum. He was, however, very polite, and even assured Mr. Pringle, that he would issue orders that the French should receive no supplies in any of his ports. Had they actually appeared, I believe that he neither possessed the power nor the inclination to refuse them.

The difference of climate between the Tehama and the hills of Yemen is so great, as, generally, to produce illness in those who change from one to the other. The air at Sana'a is cool, and in the nights even cold. Grain grows in abundance, and a profusion of fruit adds greatly to the luxuries of the table. A portion of these find their way to Mocha, where I have tasted apples, peaches, apricots, plums, and a variety of grapes. Of the latter, a small kind was particularly admired, which was called kismis, and had no stones.

It has been argued by Mr. Bruce and others, that polygamy is necessary in the East, in consequence of two females being born to one male. I inquired of the Hadje Abdallah if this were true, according to his experience; and he assured me that it was. I confess, however, that I received the information from the Mussulmauns with some doubt, as it is evidently used by them as an argument in support of their law, which gives the privilege of having more than one wife. Dr. Russel, who, from his long residence at Aleppo, had bet-

ter opportunities of investigating the truth, not only expresses a strong doubt on the subject, but also gives, in a note, the report of a Maronite priest, who was employed in 1740, to number that nation in Aleppo; by which it appears, that there were one thousand five hundred and thirty-three females, and one thousand five hundred males; a disproportion that cannot serve as the ground for an argument in favour of polygamy. Mr. Niebuhr also gives several lists, made by the Christian missionaries, of the children annually baptized by them in India; and here the males and females were nearly equal to each other, but rather in favour of the males; and though in the list of those baptized in Persia, there are only one hundred and nineteen to one hundred and fifty-one females, yet this difference is far from conclusive, even if it were not supposed to be owing to some accidental circumstance: a conjecture that may by no means appear improbable, when it is observed how greatly this list differs from the others, taken in equally hot climates, and where polygamy is as common as in Arabia. Were the fact, as asserted by the Mussulmauns, to be proved, I should still doubt whether polygamy was not the cause, instead of the effect, of the birth of the supernumerary females.

It is now above forty years since a new sect started up in Arabia, which has rapidly increased, and is likely to cause a greater change in the political situation of that country, than any event since the time of Mohammed. Abdul Wahab, a private individual, born, according to Niebuhr, in El Aiâne, a town of the district of Daraie, in the province of Nedjed-el-Ared, has

has given his name to his followers, who are from him called Wahabee. This extraordinary man, for many years, studied the sciences in Arabia; and, after travelling through Persia, and residing for some time at Basra, returned to his native country, and proclaimed himself the reformer of the Mussulmann religion. The province of Nedjed was at this time divided into a multitude of smaller tribes, each governed by its own Sheik. To these, Abdul Waheb pointed out the abuses which had crept into the Mussulmann religion, particularly the worshipping of saints, and the use of spirituous liquors and other exhilarating articles. He reprobated the doctrine of the two sects of the Sunnis, with respect to the denying that the Koran was either created, or existing from all eternity, but admitting that it was inspired by God, as a guide for the conduct of mankind. However, as the greater part of the Sheiks were Sunnis, he conciliated them, by acknowledging the authority of the sayings of Mohammed. My good friend the Hadje Abdallah, who was avowedly a Wahabee, and was in Mecca at the time it was taken by Suud, gave me their profession of faith, which is as follows:

“ There is only one God. He is
 “ God, and Mohammed is his pro-
 “ phet. Act according to the Ko-
 “ ran, and the sayings of Moham-
 “ med. It is unnecessary for you to
 “ pray for the blessing of God on
 “ the prophet, oftener than once in
 “ your life. You are not to invoke
 “ the prophet to intercede with God
 “ in your behalf, for his intercession
 “ will be of no avail. At the day
 “ of judgment it will avail you. Do
 “ not call on the prophet; call on
 “ God alone.”

These doctrines rapidly spread

among the different tribes, whose power was nearly equal, and tended gradually to the recognition of a supremely controlling power in the person of the reformer; which completely destroyed the former balance of power, and gave to Abdul Waheb a preponderating influence in the north-east part of Arabia. The Sheiks, who did not acknowledge either his spiritual or temporal power, at length united against him; and, under the command of the Sheik of Lachsa, who was alarmed for his own safety, attacked him in his native city. Abdul Waheb defended himself successfully on this occasion; and, on another, when his enemies marched against him with four thousand men. Abdul Waheb, from this time, gradually extended his territories and his faith. Sheik Mekrami, of Nedjeran, was one of his most powerful followers; and, according to the conjecture of Mr. Niebuhr, contributed greatly to his prosperity; a circumstance that was confirmed by Hadje Abdallah, who met the Sheik twenty-seven years ago at Mecca; and had much conversation with him.

Abdul Waheb was too able a man, to leave neglected any means of increasing the activity of his followers; following, therefore, the example of Mohammed, and fully aware of the influence which self-interest has over the human mind, he added to the inducements of religious zeal, the temptation of plunder, by declaring, that all the property belonging to those who were unconverted, was unholy, and to be confiscated for the use of their conquerors. — Numbers, therefore, to save their property, professed themselves Wahabee before he marched against them, and immediately began to attack their neighbours,

bours, in order to oblige them to change their religion, and give up their property. By these means, Abdul Waheb secured to himself the supreme power over the whole province of Nedjed, while, by his most powerful servant, Sheik Mekrami, he carried his hostilities into Yemen. On his death, he was peaceably succeeded in his spiritual and temporal power by his son Abduluziz.

I have not been able to learn the date of Abduluziz's accession, but he reigned till May, 1803, when he was assassinated, while at prayers in a mosque at Darail, his capital, by an Arab, whose daughter he had forcibly carried away from her home many years before. The Arab immediately sold all his property, and with a patient perseverance followed the footsteps of his oppressor, whom, at length, though his spiritual and temporal sovereign, he sacrificed to his private revenge.

During the reign of Abduluziz, the religion of his father was extended over the greater part of the peninsula of Arabia, either by the arms of his son Suud, or by his followers. Many Arab tribes of the Great Desert also recognized him as their religious head; and even in temporal concerns, indirectly admitted his authority, by remitting him a proportion of their plunder, for charitable purposes, when they took possession of the celebrated burying-place of Hossein, at Arbela, and, according to their invariable practice, destroyed his magnificent tomb, so highly venerated by the Persians, and the other followers of Ali.

The Sheriffe of Abou-Arish had, as I have formerly mentioned, been appointed, by the Imaum of Sana, Dola of Loheia, where he soon be-

came independent. The different Sheiks, who held many of the districts of Yemen under a kind of feudal tenure, which admitted the right of the soil to be in the Imaum, but who hardly paid him any thing for it, were encouraged by the success of the Sheriffe of Abou-Arish, and threw off even the appearance of obedience. The Imaum was too weak to conquer them; but they had a more powerful opponent in the Wahabee, who reduced the Sheriffe of Abou-Arish to obedience, and the necessity of adopting their religion, plundered him of his property, and then told him to go and indemnify himself in Yemen. He followed their advice, or rather orders; and recognizing Suud as his sovereign, carried devastation, in his name, to the gates of Mocha. Beit-el-Fakih, and the greater proportion of the coffee country, are his; and Hodeida alone prevents him from securing the Tehama from Loheia to the straits of Bab-el-mandel. Although this place remain to the Imaum, as a possession, it is useless: since the Dola was obliged to burn the town, to prevent the houses from being occupied in the attack on the forts. In the latter his soldiers remained perfectly safe, as the Wahabee had no cannon; but he will probably soon be obliged to embark, and fly to Mocha in search of food, when Mocha itself must expect to be attacked.

Mecca and Medina have been so long recognized as the two principal cities of Arabia, that the Wahabee who aspired to the sovereignty of the whole country, were particularly anxious to secure them. Galib, the present Sheriffe, is a monster of iniquity, having scrupled no means to accumulate treasure, and having poisoned two Pachas,

and

and a young prince of the Maldives, who came in a vessel of his own to Jidda, on his way to Mecca. He was of course unpopular, and his subjects by no means inclined to defend him. Even his brother-in-law, Mozeifé, had so little confidence in him, that on being sent on a mission to Daraie, he quitted his own party, and became a Wahabee. Abduluziz, conceiving this a good opportunity to attack the holy cities, early in January, 1803, intrusted Mozeifé with the command of twelve thousand men, who fought several battles with his brother-in-law, and constantly defeated him. In February of the same year, he laid siege to Tayif.

Galib, who had here his finest palaces and most flourishing gardens, hastened to its relief, and defended it for several days, till his nephew Abdullah secretly retired in the night to Mecca; when, conscious of the detestation in which he was held by his subjects, and dreading lest they should place Abdullah in his stead, he abandoned Tayif, having set his palaces on fire. Mozeifé immediately entered, and his followers commenced their usual devastations. Eight hundred males were put to the sword, but the harems were respected. Many houses were burned, and the whole were plundered; but the treasure of the Sheriffé had been conveyed to Mecca with his wives and followers. All the holy tombs were destroyed, and among them that of Abdullah Ebn Abbas, the uncle of the prophet, an edifice celebrated throughout Arabia for its pre-eminent beauty and sanctity. The grave itself, and the stone which covered it, were not disturbed. Mozeifé, as a reward for his treachery, was appointed governor. Abduluziz had no intention that

Mecca, Medina, and their sea-ports of Jidda and Vambo, should be held by any descendant of the prophet as a viceroy under him: he therefore sent his eldest son Suud to command the victorious army at Tayif, which marched so unexpectedly against Mecca, on the 26th of April, 1803, that the Sheriffé, panic-struck, determined to retire, with all his treasures, to Jidda. He effected this in the night, leaving his brother to make the best terms he could with the enemy. On the following day Mecca, for the first time since Mohammed entered it in 629, was obliged to submit to a hostile invader, who, however, strictly conformed to the terms of capitulation, and neither plundered nor injured the inhabitants. — The religious prejudices of the Wahabee were greatly offended by above eighty splendid tombs, which covered the remains of the descendants of Mohammed, and formed the great ornament of Mecca. These were levelled with the ground, as was also the monument of the venerable and respected wife of the prophet, Kadijah. The coffee-houses next felt the desolating zeal of the reformers. The hookahs were piled in a heap and burned, and the use of tobacco and coffee prohibited under severe penalties. The holy places were plundered of their valuable articles, but the Caaba remained uninjured. The Wahabee have asserted, that the veneration paid to the black stone was idolatrous; and disapproved of the ceremonies practised by the pilgrims at the stone of Abraham, which is placed near the well of Zemzem, and is supposed to have on it the mark of the patriarch's foot, formed while he stood there to build the Caaba. Into this mark the water is

is poured from the well, for the pilgrims to drink. Suud seems to have justly estimated the benefits which Mecca enjoyed from the annual influx of pilgrims; he therefore acted with moderation, and confirmed the Cadi whom the Grand Seignior had appointed. He also wrote to him the following letter:

“ Suud to Selim.

“ I entered Mecca on the fourth day of Moharem, in the 1218th year of the Hejira. I kept peace towards the inhabitants. I destroyed all the tombs which they idolatrously worshipped. I abolished the levying of all customs above two and a half per cent. I confirmed the Cadi, whom you had appointed to govern in the place, agreeably to the commands of Mohammed. I desire that, in the ensuing years, you will give orders to the Pachas of Shaum, Syria, Misr, and Egypt, not to come accompanied by the Mahamel, trumpets, and drums, into Mecca and Medina. For why? religion is not profited by these things. Peace be between us, and may the blessing of God be unto you! Dated on the 10th day of Moharem.” This answers to our 3d of May.

On the eleventh of May Suud marched against Jidda; but the delay at Mecca had given time to the Sheriffe to prepare for his reception, by bringing on shore all the cannon from the vessels in the harbour, and planting them on the walls. An attempt was made by the Wahabee to storm the town, but it failed. Suud, however, contrived to cut off all supplies, even of water; in consequence of which, numbers perished by thirst, in the nine days that the blockade continued; and at length the Sheriffe

was forced by the inhabitants to offer a sum of money to Suud, on condition of his abandoning the siege. The arrangements were actually made for the payment of a lac and thirty thousand dollars, when the intelligence arrived of the death of Abduluziz, which induced Suud to return instantly to Daraie, lest any rival should dispute the succession. Jidda was thus saved, and even Mecca fell again under the control of the Sheriffe; but Tayif, the most lovely spot in Arabia, a spot so unlike the surrounding country, that the Arabs believe it to have been a part of Syria, detached and dropped during the general deluge, still remained in the hands of Mozeifé.

In 1804, Medina, with its treasure, which had accumulated for ages by the donations of the faithful, became a prey to the Wahabee; and the tomb of the prophet shared the fate of those of his descendants. Jidda was again attacked, but without success, as the Sheriffe had received supplies from Egypt. Yambo fell, but was retaken on the sea side. The Pacha of Syria forced his way through the undisciplined troops of Suud, and the usual ceremonies were performed by the Faithful at the holy Caaba, probably for the last time; for the numerous hordes of the Wahabee now cover the Desert with their flying squadrons, and render a passage too dangerous to be attempted.

The Johassen Arabs, who acknowledge the religious supremacy of Suud, have occasionally entered the Red Sea, and, should they obey his call, and appear with their powerful naval force before Jidda, resistance would be unavailing, and the descendants of the Prophet would cease to reign in Arabia.

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The Imaum of Muscat has perished in battle, and his son is said to be under the control of a Wahabee guardian. Yemen has no natural means of resisting the vast power of her opponent, and must sink under the imbecility of her government. In the vast peninsula of Arabia, the little state of Aden alone offers any rational means of resistance to the power of the Wahabee, by the wisdom of her sovereign, and the bravery of his little army. Gratitude calls upon the British to prevent his ruin; for to them he has ever been an attached and useful ally. During the expedition to the Red Sea, his port was open to them: and, on General Murray's quitting Perim, the British troops were, with unbounded confidence, admitted within his walls. On the appearance of the Johassen fleet in his harbour, in 1804, while a large Surat vessel was lying there, he sent his soldiers on board to protect her from the pirates, and obliged them to put to sea, without receiving any supplies, though they offered him half of the plunder they had already made, if he would permit them to remain. These repeated acts of friendship now call for a return, which it is perfectly in the British power to afford.

The Wahabee, conscious of their want of arms and ammunition, and fully convinced of the benefit they would receive from a trade being opened between India and their ports, have made repeated offers to the Bombay government, of granting immunities and exclusive privileges to the British merchants, if they would establish a factory at Loheia; they would therefore willingly comply with any request in favour of the Sultan of Aden, as an ally of the British, and would, with

little regret, give up an attack on a power, whom they have hitherto found capable of resisting them.

No answer has as yet been given to the applications of the Wahabee; and the Bombay government behold, without concern, a revolution, which is again connecting the disunited Arabs under one supreme master. It is a circumstance well worthy of remark, that this has, for the first time since the death of Ali, occurred at a moment when the surrounding kingdoms of Asia and Africa are sunk into the same state of imbecility and distraction, to which they were reduced under the Romans, when the dissolute and lukewarm Christians were obliged to yield to the ardent and zealous followers of Mohammed.

Low as the power of the Turkish empire has now fallen, I do not expect that the Wahabee will completely prevail against it, unless, by a communication with Europeans, they obtain supplies of arms and ammunition, and, with them, learn a proportion of European discipline. I consider Arabia, however, as lost for ever to the Sultaun; and, consequently, that he has ceased to be the head of the Mussulmaun religion. The order of Mohammed, that his followers should, once in their lives, visit Mecca, can no longer be performed. The sacred city has heard the din of hostile arms, and is in possession of a prince who denies to Mohammed that veneration which he received for 1200 years. His descendants will soon come to reign; and although the Koran may be revered for a longer period throughout a portion of Asia, the mighty fabric of Islamism must be considered as having passed away, from the moment that Suud entered Mecca on the 27th of April, 1803."

CITY AND GOVERNMENT OF TIMBUCTOO,

NEARLY IN THE CENTRE OF AFRICA.

[From Jackson's Account of the Empire of Marocco.]

TIMBUCTOO, the great emporium of central Africa, has, from time immemorial, carried on a very extensive and lucrative trade with the various maritime States of North Africa, viz. Marocco, Tunis, Algier, Tripoli, Egypt, &c. by means of (akkabaahs) accumulated caravans, which cross the great Desert of Sahara, generally between the months of September and April inclusive: these akkabaahs consist of several hundred loaded camels, accompanied by the Arabs, who let them to the merchants for the transport of their merchandize to Fas, Marocco, &c. at a very low rate. During their route, they are often exposed to the attacks of the roving Arabs of Sahara, who generally commit their depredations as they approach the confines of the Desert.

In this tiresome journey, the akkabaahs do not proceed in a direct line across the trackless Desert to the place of their destination, but turn occasionally eastward or westward, according to the situation of certain fertile, inhabited, and cultivated spots, interspersed in various parts of Sahara, like islands in the ocean, called Oas, or Oases; these serve as watering-places to the men, as well as to feed, refresh, and replenish the hardy and patient camel: at each of these Oases, the akkabaah sojourns about seven days, and then proceeds on its journey, until it reaches another spot of the same description. In the intermediate journies, the hot winds, denominated Shume, are often so violent, as considerably, if not entirely, to exhale the water carried in

skins by the camels for the use of the passengers and drivers; on these occasions, the Arabs and people of Soudan affirm that 500 dollars have been given for a draught of water; and that ten or twenty are commonly given when a partial exhalation has occurred.

In 1805, a caravan proceeding from Timbuctoo to Tafillet, was disappointed, in not finding water at one of the usual watering-places, when, horrible to relate, the whole of the persons belonging to it, 2000 in number, beside 1800 camels, perished of thirst! Accidents of this sort account for the vast quantities of human and other bones, which are found mingled together in various parts of the Desert.

The intense heat of the sun, aided by the vehement and parching wind driving the loose sand along the boundless plains, gives to the Desert the appearance of a sea, the drifting sands resembling exactly the waves of the ocean, and hence aptly denominated by the Arabs (El Bahar billa maa) a sea without water.

It is generally affirmed that the guides, to whom the charge of conducting these numerous accumulated caravans is committed, in their routes to and from Marocco, direct their course by the scent of the sandy earth; but I could never discover any reasonable foundation for such an opinion, and apprehend it to be an artful invention of their own, to impose on the credulity of this superstitious and ignorant people, and thus to enhance the value of their knowledge. These guides possess some idea of astrology, and the

the situation of certain stars, and being enabled by the two pointers to ascertain the polar star, they can, by that unvarying guide, steer their course with considerable precision, preferring often travelling in the night, rather than under the suffocating heat of the scorching meridian sun.

When the akkabaah reaches Akka, the first station on this side of the Desert, and situated on the confines thereof, in Lower Suse, which is a part of Bled-el-jerrède, the camels and guides are discharged, and others there hired to proceed to Fas, Marocco, Terodant, Tafielt, and other places.

The akkabaahs perform the traverse of the Desert, including their sojournments at El-wahs, or Oases, in about 130 days. Proceeding from the city of Fas, they go at the rate of three miles and a half an hour, and travel seven hours a day; they reach Wedinoon, Tatta, or Akka, in eighteen days, where they remain a month, as the grand accumulated akkabaah proceeds from the latter place.

In going from Akka to Tagassa (the *g* should be pronounced guttural), they employ sixteen days, here sojourning fifteen days more to replenish their camels; they then proceed to the Oasis and Well of Taudeny, which they reach in seven days; here again they remain fifteen days: their next route is to Arawan, another watering-place, which they reach in seven days; here they sojourn fifteen days, and then proceed and reach Timbuctoo the sixth day, making a journey of fifty-four days actual travelling, and of seventy-five days repose, being altogether, from Fas to Timbuctoo, one hundred and twenty-nine days, or four lunar months and nine days.

There is another akkabaah which sets out from Wedinoon and Sok Assa, and traversing the Desert between the black mountains of Cape Bojador and Gualata, touches at Tagassa, El Garbie (both *g*'s guttural, being the letter *g*, or *g*)

West Tagassa, and staying there to collect salt, proceeds to Timbuctoo. The time occupied by this akkabaah is five or six months, as it goes as far as Jibbed-el-biéd, or the White Mountains, near Cape Blanco, through the desert of Mograffa and Woled Abussebah, to a place called Agadeen, where it sojourns twenty days.

The akkabaahs which cross the Desert, may be compared to our fleets of merchant vessels under convoy, the (stata) convoy of the Desert being two or more Arabs, belonging to the tribe through whose territory the caravan passes: thus, in passing the territory of Woled Abussebah, they are accompanied by two Sebayées, or people of that country, who, on reaching the confines of the territory of Woled Deleim, receive a remuneration, and return, delivering them to the protection of two chiefs of Woled Deleim; these again conducting them to the confines of the territory of the Moraffra Arabs, to whose care they deliver them, and so on, till they reach Timbuctoo: any assault made against the akkabaah during this journey, is considered as an insult to the whole clan to which the (stata) convoy belongs, and for which they never fail to take ample revenge.

Besides these grand accumulated caravans, there are others which cross the Desert on any emergency, without a stata, or guard of soldiers; but this is a perilous expedition, and they are too often plundered

dered near the northern confines of the Desert, by two notorious tribes, called Dikna and Emjot. In the year 1799, an akkabaah, consisting of two thousand camels loaded with Soudanic produce, together with seven hundred slaves, was plundered and dispersed, and many were killed. These desperate attacks are conducted in the following manner: a whole clan picket their horses at the entrance of their tents, and send out scouts to give notice when an akkabaah is likely to pass; these being mounted on the Heirie, or Shrubba Er'reeh, quickly communicate the intelligence, and the whole clan mount their horses, taking with them a sufficient number of (niag) female camels, to supply them with food (they living altogether on the milk of that animal); they place themselves somewhere in ambush near an Oasis, or watering-place, from whence they issue on the arrival of the akka-baah, which they plunder of every thing, leaving the unfortunate merchants entirely destitute.

Those who have philosophy enough to confine their wants solely to what nature requires, would view the individual happiness of the people who compose the caravans with approbation. Their food, dress, and accommodation, are simple and natural: proscribed from the use of wine and intoxicating liquors by their religion, and exhorted by its principles to temperance, they are commonly satisfied with a few nourishing dates, and a draught of water; and they will travel for weeks successively without any other food: at other times, a little barley meal and cold water is the extent of their provision, when they undertake a journey of a few weeks across the Desert; living in this abstemious

manner, they never complain, but solace themselves with a hope of reaching their native country, singing occasionally during the journey, whenever they approach any habitation, or whenever the camels appear fatigued: these songs are usually sung in trio, and in the chorus all the camel-drivers, who have a musical voice, join; it is worthy observation, how much these songs renovate the camels, and the symphony and time they keep surpasses what any one would imagine, who had not heard them. In traversing the Desert, they generally contrive to terminate the day's journey at l'Asaw, a term which they appropriate to our four o'clock, P. M. so that between that period and the setting sun, the tents are pitched, prayers said, and the (Lashaw) supper got ready; after which they sit round in a circle, and talk till sleep overcomes them, and next morning, at break of day, they proceed again on their journey.

The Arabic language, as spoken by the camel-drivers, is peculiarly sweet and soft; the guttural and harsh letters are softened, and with all its energy and perspicuity, when pronounced by them, is as soft, and more sonorous, than the Italian; it approaches the ancient Korannick language, and has suffered but little alteration these twelve hundred years. The Arabs of Morassira, and those of Woled Abussebah, frequently hold an extempore conversation in poetry, at which the women are adepts, and never fail to shew attention to those young Arabs who excel in this intellectual and refined amusement.

The articles transported by the company of merchants trading from Fas to Timbuctoo, are principally as follows: various kinds of Ger-

man

man linens, viz. plattilias, rouans, brettanias, muslins of different qualities, particularly muls, Irish linens, cambricks, fine cloths of particular colours, coral beads, amber beads, pearls, Bengal raw silk, brass nails, coffee, fine Hyson teas, refined sugar, and various manufactures of Fas and Tafielt, viz. shawls and sashes of silk and gold, hayks of silk, of cotton and silk mixed, of cotton and of wool; also an immense quantity of (hayk filelly) Tafielt hayks, a particularly light and fine manufacture of that place, and admirably adapted to the climate of Soudan; to these may be added red woollen caps, the general covering of the head, turbans, Italian silks, nutmegs, cloves, ginger, and pepper, Venetian beads, cowries, and a considerable quantity of tobacco and salt, the produce of Barbary and Bled-el-jerrêde.

The produce of Soudan, returned by the akkabaahs for the above articles, consists principally in gold dust, twisted gold rings of Wangara, gold rings made at Jinnie, bars of gold, elephants' teeth; gum of Soudan (guza Saharawie), grains of Sahara, called by Europeans grains of Paradise, odoriferous gums, called el b'kor'h Soudan, much esteemed by the Arabs for fumigating, to which they ascribe many virtues; a great number of slaves, purchased at Timbuctoo, from the Wangareen, Houssonian, and other slatees, who bring them from those regions which border on the Jibbel, Kumra, or Mountains of the Moon, a chain which, with little or no intermission, runs through the continent of Africa, from the west to the east, viz. from Assentee in the west, to Abyssinia in the east.

Ostrich feathers. and ambergris

are collected on the confines of the Desert, and are added to the merchandize before mentioned.—The gold jewels of Jinnie are denominated by the Arabs El Herrez, from the supposed charm they contain; they are invariably of pure gold, and some of them of exquisite workmanship, and of various forms, but hollow in the middle, for the purpose of containing the Herrez, or amulet, which consists of passages from the Koran, arranged in some geometrical figure, on paper, which being inclosed in the gold jewel, is suspended from the neck, or tied round the arms, legs, or elsewhere. These charms have various and particular powers attributed to them, some insuring the wearer against the effects of an evil eye, others from an evil mind; some are intended to secure a continuation of prosperity and happiness, or to avert misfortune, whilst others secure to the wearer health and strength. This superstition, and predilection for charms, pervades the greater part of Africa: thus, in the northern maritime states, in Suse, and other parts of Bled-el-jerrêde, the fakrees, or saints attach half a hundred Herrez (without, however, the gold covering, for which they substitute a leathern one) to different parts of their body, and even to the horses: at Marocco I have seen eleven round one horse's neck. The inhabitants of these countries imagine no disorder incident to mankind can attack either man or beast, without the aid of some (jin) spirit, or departed soul, or (drubba d'lain) an evil eye.

The slaves brought by the akkabaahs are more or less valuable in Barbary, according to their beauty and symmetry of person, and also according to their age, and the country

country from whence they are procured: thus a Wangareen slave is not worth so much as one from Houssa; the former being a gross, stupid people, little superior in understanding to the brute creation, whilst those of Houssa are intelligent, industrious, acute, and possess peculiarly open and noble countenance, having prominent noses, and expressive black eyes: those of Wangara, on the contrary, have large mouths, thick lips, broad, flat noses, and heavy eyes. A young girl of Houssa, of exquisite beauty, was once sold at Marocco, whilst I was there, for four hundred ducats, whilst the average price of slaves is about one hundred, so much depends on the fancy or the imagination of the purchaser!

These slaves are treated very differently from the unhappy victims who used to be transported from the coast of Guinea, and our settlements on the Gambia, to the West-India islands. After suffering those privations, which all who traverse the African Desert must necessarily and equally submit to, masters as well as servants and slaves, they are conveyed to Fes and Marocco, and after being exhibited in the sock, or public market-place, they are sold to the highest bidder, who carries them to his home, where, if found faithful, they are considered as members of the family, and allowed an intercourse with the (horraht) free-born women of the household. Being in the daily habit of hearing the Arabic language spoken, they soon acquire a partial knowledge of it, and the Mohammedan religion teaching the unity of God, they readily reject paganism, and embrace Mohammedanism; their Mooselmin masters then instil into their vacant minds, ready to re-

ceive the first impression, the fundamental principles of the Mooselmin doctrine; the more intelligent learn to read and write, and afterwards acquire a partial knowledge of the Koran; and such as can read and understand one chapter, from that time procure their emancipation from slavery, and the master exults in having converted an infidel, and in full faith expects favour from heaven for the action, and for having liberated a slave. When these people do not turn their minds to reading, and learning the principles of Mohammedanism, they generally obtain their freedom after eight or ten years servitude; for the more conscientious Mooselmen consider them as servants, and purchase them for about the same sum that they would pay in wages to a servant during the above period; at the expiration of which term, by giving them their liberty, they, according to their religious opinions, acquire a blessing from God, for having done an act, which a Mooselman considers more meritorious in the sight of Heaven, than the sacrifice of a goat, or even of a camel. This liberation is entirely voluntary on the part of the owner; and I have known some slaves so attached to their masters from good treatment, that when they have been offered their liberty, they have actually refused it, preferring to continue in servitude. It should not, however, be supposed, that the Arabs and Moors are always inclined thus to liberate these degraded people: on the contrary, some of them, particularly the latter, are obdurate, and make an infamous traffic of them, by purchasing, and afterwards intermarrying them, for the purpose of propagation and of sale, when they are placed in the public

lic market-place, and there turned about and examined, in order to ascertain their value.

The eunuchs which the emperor and princes keep to superintend their respective horems, are, for the most part, procured from the vicinage of Senaar in Soudan; these creatures have shrill and effeminate voices; they are emasculated in a peculiar manner, and sometimes in such a way, as not to be incapacitated from cohabiting with women; they are in general very fat and gross, and, from the nature of the charge committed to them, become very confidential servants: indeed, their fidelity is surpassed only by their unbounded indolence. I knew one of these creatures, who was chief of the eunuchs superintending the horem of Muley Abd Salam, at Agadeer, who was one hundred and ten years old; he was then upright, and walked about without a stick.

Persons unaccustomed to, or unacquainted with, the mode of living in Africa, may imagine the expence and trouble of conveying the slaves across the Desert, would be more than the advantage derivable from their sale; but it must be recollected that these people are very abstemious, particularly whilst travelling; ten dollars expended in rice in Wangara, is sufficient for a year's consumption for one person; the wearing apparel is alike economical, a pair of drawers, and sometimes a vest, forming all the clothing necessary in traversing the Desert.

It is not ascertained when the communication between Barbary and Soudan was first opened, yet it is certain, that the enterprising expedition of Muley Arsheede to the latter country, tended considerably to increase and encourage the ex-

change of commodities, and caused the establishment of the company of Fas merchants at Fas, as well as that of their factory at Timbuctoo, which has continued to increase and flourish ever since.

The circulating medium at Timbuctoo is (tibber) gold dust, which is exchanged for merchandize; thus a platilia is worth 20 mizans of gold: a piece of Irish linen, of 22 yards, is worth 30 mizans; and loaf sugar is worth 40 mizans of gold per quintal.

Having, in some measure, explained the nature of the trade with Timbuctoo, we may now proceed to discuss the extent of its territory; and although this does not appear to have been ascertained, yet it may be said to extend northward to the confines of Sahara, or the Desert, a tract of country about ninety miles in breadth: the western boundary is one hundred and thirty miles west of the city; and the eastern extends to the Bahar Soudan, or the sea of Soudan, which is a lake formed by the Nile El Abeede, whose opposite shore is not discernible; this is the description given of it by the Soudanees, who have visited it: on its opposite or eastern shore begins the territory of white people hereafter mentioned, denominated by the Arabs (N'sarrath) Christians, or followers of Jesus of Nazareth: south of the river is another territory of immense extent, the boundary of which extends to Lamlem, or Melli, which latter is reported to be inhabited by one of the lost, or missing tribes of Israel.

The city of Timbuctoo is situated on a plain, surrounded by sandy eminences, about twelve miles north of the Nile El Abeede, or Nile of the Blacks, and three (erhellat) days journey from the confines

sonfines of Sahara: the city is about twelve miles in circumference, but without walls. The town of Kabra, situated on the banks of the river, is its commercial depot, or port. By means of a water carriage east and west of Kabra, great facility is given to the trade of Timbuctoo, from whence the various articles of European as well as Barbary manufactures, brought by the akkabaahs from the north of Africa, are distributed to the different empires and states of Soudan, and the south. This great mart is resorted to by all nations, whither they bring the various products of their respective countries, to barter for the European and Barbary manufactures.

The houses of Timbuctoo have for the most part no upper apartments; they are spacious, and of a square form, with an opening in the centre, towards which the doors open; they have no windows, as the doors, which are lofty and wide, admit sufficient light to the rooms when thrown open. Contiguous to the entrance door is a building consisting of two rooms, called a Duaria, in which visitors are received and entertained, so that they see nothing of the women, who are extremely handsome; the men are so excessively jealous of their wives, that, when the latter visit a relation, they are muffled up in every possible way to disguise their persons; their face is also covered with their garment, through which they peep with one eye to discover their way.

The king, whose authority has been acknowledged at Timbuctoo ever since the death of Muley Ismael, emperor of Marocco, is the sovereign of Bambarra; the name of this potentate in 1800 was Woolo: he is a black, and a native

of the country which he governs; his usual place of residence is Jinnie, though he has three palaces in Timbuctoo, which are said to contain an immense quantity of gold. Many of the civil appointments, since the decease of Muley Ismael before mentioned, and the consequent decline of the authority of the Emperor of Marocco, have been filled by Moors of Maroquin origin; but the military appointments since the above period, have been entirely among the negroes of Bambarra, appointed by the King Woolo; the inhabitants are also for the most part negroes, who possess much of the Arab hospitality, and pride themselves with being attentive to strangers. The various costumes exhibited in the market-places and streets indicate the variety and extent of the commercial intercourse with the different nations of central Africa; the individuals being each habited in the dress of his respective country, exhibit a variety both pleasing and interesting to every stranger who goes there.

The toleration in a country like this is particularly deserving of notice. The Divan, or L'Alemma, never interfere with the religious tenets of the various religions professed by the different people who resort hither for commercial or other purposes; every one is allowed to worship the great Author of his being without restraint, and according to the religion of his father, or in the way wherein he may have been initiated.

The police of this extraordinary place is extolled, as surpassing anything of the kind on this side of the Desert; robberies and house-breaking are scarcely known; the peaceable inhabitants of the town each following his respective avocation,

interfere with nothing but what concerns them. The government of the city is entrusted to a divan of twelve Alemma, or men learned in the Koran, and an umpire, who retain their appointments, which they receive from the king of Bambarra, three years. The power of the Alemma is great, and their falling into the mass of citizens after the expiration of the above period, obliges them to act uprightly, as their good or bad administration of justice either acquits or condemns them; after the expiration of their temporary power. The civil jurisprudence is directed by a Cadi, who decides all judicial proceedings according to the spirit of the Koran; he has twelve talbs of the law, or attornies, attending him, each of whom has a separate department of justice to engage his daily attention.

It is asserted that until lately no news were permitted to enter the town, and various conjectures have been made as to the cause of this interdiction. It is also reported that those Jews who do now resort thither are obliged to become Mohammedans, the forms of which religion they probably relinquish on their return to their native country; but whatever may be the ostensible, I am inclined to think the true cause why the Jews are not admitted into Timbuctoo, is the extreme jealousy of the individuals of the Moorish factory, whose avarice induces them to exclude every person from sharing their emoluments, whenever a plausible pretext can be found.

The climate of Timbuctoo is much extolled as being salubrious, and extremely invigorating, inso-much that it is impossible for the sexes to exist without intermarrying; accordingly it is said, there is no man of the age of eighteen who

has not his wives or concubines, all which are allowed by the laws of the country, which are Mohammedan; and it is even a disgrace for a man who has reached the age of puberty to be unmarried. The natives, and those who have resided there any considerable time, have an elegance and suavity of manners, which is not observed on this side of Sahara; they possess a great flow of animal spirits, and are generally so much attached to their country, that they invariably return, when insurmountable difficulties do not prevent them.

The accommodation for travellers at Timbuctoo is very simple; camels, horses, drivers, and merchants rendezvous at a large house, having an open space in the middle, round which are built rooms sufficiently large for a bed and table: these inns, or caravanseras, are called Fondaque, and each merchant hires a room, or more, until he accommodates himself with a house, bartering and exchanging his commodities, till he has invested the whole in Soudanic produce, which he endeavours to accomplish by autumn (September), in order to be ready for the akkabaah, either to proceed to Marocco, Cairo, Jidda or elsewhere.

With regard to the manufactures of different kinds of apparel at Timbuctoo, and other places of the interior, they are made for the most part by the women in their respective houses, whenever they cannot procure European cloths and linens, or when there is a great scarcity of Fas and Tafielt manufactures of silk, cotton, and woollen.

It has been said that there is an extensive library at Timbuctoo, consisting of manuscripts in a character differing from the Arabic; this, I am inclined to think, has originated in

in the fertile imagination of some poet; or, perhaps, some Arab or Moor, willing to indulge at the expence of European curiosity, has fabricated such a story. In all my inquiries during many years, I never heard of any such library at Timbuctoo. The state library, which is composed for the most part of manuscripts in the Arabic, contains a few Hebrew, and perhaps Chaldaic books; amongst the Arabic, it is probable there are many translations from Greek and Latin authors at present unknown to Europeans.

The Nile El Abeede, or Nile of the Negroes, overflows in the same manner as the Nile Massar, or Nile of Egypt, when the sun enters Cancer; this is the rainy season in the countries, south of the Great Desert, and in Jibbel Kumra, or the Mountains of the Moon, from whence the waters descend, which cause the river to overflow its banks. At Kabra near Timbuctoo, it becomes a very large stream. River horses are found in the Nile El Abeede, as well as crocodiles, and the country contiguous to its southern banks is covered with forests of primeval growth, in which are many trees of great size and beauty. These forests abound with elephants of an enormous size.

The river, according to the concurrent testimony of the Arabs and the Moors, is about the width of the Thames at London: the stream is so very rapid in the middle, as to oblige the boats which navigate to Jinnie, so keep close to the shore; and the boatmen, instead of oars, push the boat on with long poles.

The soil about Timbuctoo is generally fertile, and near the river produces rice, millet, Indian corn, and other grain: wheat and barley

grow in the plains, and are cultivated principally by the Arabs of the tribe of Brabeesha. Coffee grows wild here, as does also indigo; the latter, however, is cultivated in some parts, and produces a very fine blue dye, which they use in their various cotton manufactures; a specimen of this colour may be seen in the British Museum, in a piece of cloth of cotton and silk, which I had the honour to present to that national depository of curiosities some years since: it is of a chequered pattern, similar to a draft board, the squares are alternate blue and white; these pieces of cotton are manufactured at Jinnie and Timbuctoo, and used as covers to beds; they are valuable from the strength and durability of the texture, and are therefore sold at a high price in Barbary, according to the quantity of silk that is in them, and the quality of the cotton: those however which have no silk interwoven, but are simply cotton, of blue and white patterns, are not so costly: the width varies from two to twelve inches; the pieces are sewed together so closely afterwards with silk or thread, that one can scarcely perceive the seams, the whole appearing as one piece.

The husbandmen (whom they call fulah) are very expert in the œconomy of bees; honey and wax are abundant, but neither is transported across the Desert; first, because the articles abound in Barbary, and secondly, because they are used by the natives of Timbuctoo, the former as an article of food, and the latter for candles.

There is a supply of fish from the river about Kabia, but of what kind I have not been able to learn, as they differ from those of Europe.

The mines of gold which lie

south of the bed of the river belong to the Sultan Woolo, who resides at Jinnie; he has three palaces, or spacious houses at Timbuctoo, where his gold is deposited, of which he is said to possess an enormous quantity. The persons who are daily employed in working the mines are Bambareen negroes, who are extremely rich in gold, for all pieces of ore which they take from the mines, not weighing twelve mizans, or two ounces, become a perquisite to themselves, as a remuneration for their labour, and all pieces of greater weight belong to the Sultan, and are deposited in his before-mentioned palaces.

It is asserted that the mines are so pure, that lumps of virgin gold are constantly found of several ounces in weight; this being admitted, it will not be surprising that the value of this precious metal, here so abundant, should be considerable, and that some articles of small value with us in Europe, such as tobacco, salt, and manufactured brass, should often sell at Timbuctoo for their weight in gold. But here I would wish to be understood as speaking with some latitude, as the precise value

of the circulating medium of Souden is subject to great fluctuation, originating from a company of enterprising speculators of great capital at Fas, who are extremely jealous of the trade, and particularly cautious in communicating any information respecting it. In my various inquiries on this subject, I have constantly been guarded from receiving any information respecting Souden from men who have had commercial establishments there; but have been rather induced to prefer the testimony of those whom I have frequently met from time to time in my various journies through West and South Barbary, who were strangers to the motive of my inquiries, considering them merely as the natural suggestions of curiosity; some of these, however, I have by chance met with afterwards at Mogodor and Agadeer, where my commercial establishments were, when finding I was engaged in foreign commerce, they became very circumspect and cautious, and apparently regretted having communicated intelligence to me concerning their country.

CLASSICAL AND POLITE CRITICISM.

On the Minor Periodical Publications that ushered in the last Century.

[From Dr. DRAKE's Essays.]

“**T**HAT the highly-finished models of periodical composition which had been given to the world by Steele and Addison, should excite a spirit of emulation, and give birth to a number of competitors, was an event equally to be wished for and expected. Such, however, was the literary excellence of which the Spectator had to boast, that many years elapsed before a paper was produced whose merits afforded any very just title to the claim of rivalship. In the interim, it properly becomes a part of our province not wholly to overlook the crowd of publications which, under the appellation of periodical, issued in succession from the press. An attention to these various works, and they are infinitely more numerous than has been generally supposed, will, if duly proportioned to their moral and literary rank, not only be singularly curious, as affording a novel view of the progress of polite literature, but will, at the same time, prove the best introduction to the classical labours of the Rambler.

The popularity which attended the periodical productions of Steele and Addison, and the admiration which they had excited throughout the kingdom, speedily

established a decided taste for a species of composition alike adapted to grave or gay subjects, to the purposes of instruction and amusement : and fortunate would it have been for the interests of general literature, had the swarm of imitators strictly confined themselves to the plan of the Spectator, to a laudable attempt at reforming the morals and the manners of the age. The facility, however, with which this mode of writing might be rendered a vehicle for slander, for rancorous politics, and virulent satire, soon tempted many to deviate from the salutary example of the authors of the Tatler and Spectator ; and the former of these papers had not run half its course before it was assailed by a multitude of writers, who were actuated by no other motives than those of envy and ill-nature. Of a few of these antagonists, Addison has condescended to take some notice in the Tatler, No. 229, and has probably preserved the names of several productions which had otherwise been unknown to posterity. “ I was threatened,” he observes, “ to be answered weekly *tit for tat* ; I was undermined by the *Whisperer* ; “ haunted by Tom Brown’s ghost ; “ scolded at by a *female tattler*.—I
“ have

“ have been *annotated, retatted,*
“ *examined, and condoled.*”

In the catalogue of periodical works, which I am about to place before the reader, I shall, as a matter of mere curiosity, enumerate, as far as my researches have enabled me to proceed, every paper, literary or political, which, in its form or mode of publication, has adopted the plan of the *Spectator* and *Freeholder*. As the principal intention, however, of these pages is to mark the progress of elegant literature, and of moral improvement, and to ascertain how far the periodical essayists have contributed towards their promotion, I shall dwell on those productions alone which have been written, not only in the form, but with a portion of the spirit and purport, of their great originals, the *Tatler*, *Spectator*, and *Guardian*.

Of the various papers that appeared during the publication of these standard works, and which adopted their structure, I shall commence with those that seem to have arisen from an eager desire to calumniate, or to share the profits of the *Tatler*; and the authors of which, as Addison remarks, every day turned a penny by nibbling at the lucubrations of Isaac Bickerstaff. Foremost of the train are, 1. The *Re-Tattler*, and 2. The *Condoler*, of whose existence, however, no other proof now remains than what is to be found in the pages of Addison. 3. The *Tit for Tat*, the first number of which appeared on March 2d, 1709-10, was published under the assumed name of John Partridge, esq. who, by a glaring misnomer, has termed his papers *dilucidations*; they are a compound of nonsense and obscurity, but happily reach no farther

than No. 5, which is dated March 11th 1709.

4. The *Female Tatler*. This work was written by Mr. Thomas Baker, and commenced its circulation in 1709. It extended to many numbers, most of which are now no longer extant. Its gross personalities obtained its author a sound cudgelling from an offended family in the city; and in the month of October, 1709, it was presented as a nuisance by the grand Jury at the Old Bailey. Mr. Baker whose general style of writing was ironical, took every opportunity of recording the singularities of Steele, whether personal or moral. In No. 72, for instance, he has ridiculed Sir Richard's absence of mind, and peculiarity of attitude in walking the streets. “ I saw Mr. “ Bickerstaff going to the corner “ of St. James's, in the beginning “ of December. It was a great “ fog, yet the squire wore his hat “ under his left arm, and, as if that “ side had been lame, all the stress “ of his gait was laid upon the “ other; he stooped very much forward; and whenever his right “ foot came to the ground, which “ was always set down with a more “ than ordinary and affected force, “ his cane, with a great vibration “ of the arm, struck the stones, “ whilst a violent jerk of his head “ kept time with the latter. I observed several besides myself that “ took notice of this strange singularity, which nobody could imagine to proceed from less than either madness or despair. It is “ not to be conceived how any wise “ man alive that had been such an implacable enemy to all singularities and mimic postures, and “ writ so learnedly concerning the “ use of the cane, could make such “ a ridiculous

“ a ridiculous figure of himself in
“ the street, at the very moment
“ that his *Os homini sublime*, &c.
“ was a-printing.” The allusion
in the last line of this quotation is
to the motto of the *Tatler*, No.
108. Steele is supposed to have
ridiculed Mr. Baker under the cha-
racter of Nick Doubt, in No. 91 of
the *Tatler*.

5. The *Tory Tatler*. Of this
paper, which seems from its title
to have been written in opposition
to the political principles of Steele,
I have been unable to obtain any
other information than that it was
worthless and short-lived.

6. The *Tell Tale* is another ephemer-
al production, of whose exist-
ence scarcely a trace remains. It
is noticed, however, by Gay in his
Essay on the present State of Wit,
and is there said to have been chris-
tened the *Tell Tale*, in order to
please the ladies.

7. The *Gazette à-la-mode*. The
first number of this paper was pub-
lished on Thursday May 12th,
1709. It appears to have soon de-
servedly dropped into oblivion.

8. The *Tatling Harlot*. Of this
foolish paper three numbers are ex-
tant in the British Museum, the
first of which is dated August 22d,
1709.

9. The *Whisperer*. Though
this work (to which Addison has
given the epithet *undermining*) is
said to have been written by Mrs.
Jenny Bickerstaff, half-sister to
Isaac Bickerstaff, esq. no proof of
the relationship is visible in the con-
struction of her style and sentiments.
“ It is clear,” says the annotator
on No. 229 of the *Tatler*, “ she
“ was not related even in a left-
“ handed way to the family of the
“ Staffs. Her undermining was like
“ the work of a mole on the site of

“ Alnwick castle, which measures
“ a mile round the walls.”

10. The *General Postscript*. A
periodical paper under this title was
published in 1709. No. 19, dated
November 9th, 1709, is quoted by
the annotator on No. 91 of the *Tat-
ler*. It is probable that Mr. Baker,
the author of the *Female Tatler*,
contributed to its support, as an
advertisement by him is subjoined
to No. 19.

11. The *Monthly Amusement*.
Two periodical publications under
this title made their appearance
about the commencement of the
eighteenth century. The first was
projected by Mr. Ozell; but, be-
ing principally occupied by transla-
tions from French novels or plays,
it cannot with propriety have a
place in this enumeration; the se-
cond by Hughes was more assimila-
ted to the form, as originally es-
tablished by Steele, and began its
career in November, 1709.

12. The *Tatler*, vol. the fifth.
This spurious *Tatler*, of which I
have given some account in vol.
3d, p. 336, of my essays, was con-
ducted by Harrison and Swift, with
the occasional assistance of Henley
and Congreve. It consists of 52
numbers, the first published on the
13th of January, 1710-11, and the
last on the 19th of May, 1711.

It is chiefly valuable for the
light occasionally thrown on the
history of the genuine *Tatler*. In
No. 28, Swift has described Steele
under the appellation of *Hilario*.

13. The *Tatler*, by Baker. No
sooner had Steele given up the cen-
sorship, than a number of spurious
Tatlers immediately issued from
the press. Besides Harrison's,
which we have just mentioned, the
following advertisement indicates
that two more were at that period

in existence, and that one of them was conducted by Mr. Baker, who had been under the necessity of relinquishing his former attempt through the interference of the law.

“Whereas an advertisement was yesterday delivered out by the author of the late *Female Tatler*, insinuating, according to his custom, that he is Isaac Bickerstaff, esq. This is to give notice, that this paper is continued to be sold by John Morphew, as formerly, and may easily be distinguished from the spurious paper, by the number and publisher’s name he has assumed.” This curious notice is subjoined to a *Tatler* in folio, pretending to be a continuation of the original *Tatler*, dated January 13th, 1710, and numbered 276.

14. *Annotations on the Tatler*. This publication, to which Addison alludes in No. 229 of the *Tatler*, was written by William Oldisworth, under the fictitious name of Walter Wagstaff, esq. and was published in 1710, in 2 vols. 24to. The author, however, to shield himself as much as possible from the chastisement which he justly merited, asserted in his title-page that the work was a translation from the French of a Monsieur Bournelle. On this virulent but foolish production, Steele is supposed to have passed sentence in the concluding paragraph of No. 79 of the *Tatler*.

15. *The visions of Sir Heister Ryley*. Though these visions are a professed imitation of the *Tatler* in point of form, every paper being separated into two or three parts, and these again dated from different places; with regard to manner and style, they are placed at an infinite distance from their model. They consist of eighty numbers, the first of which was published on August 21st, 1710, and the last on

February 21st, 1710-11. So worthless, however, is the entire texture of this compilation, that I know not whether a single page can be deemed worthy of preservation.

16. *The Growler*. The only information that I have been able to obtain relative to this paper, is from Gay’s *Essay on the present State of Wit*. Speaking of the multitude of papers to which the *Tatler* had given birth, he remarks, that “the expiration of Bickerstaff’s *Lucubrations* was attended with much the same consequences as the death of Melibæus’s ox in *Virgil*: as the latter engendered swarms of bees, the former immediately produced whole swarms of little satirical scribblers. One of these authors called himself the *Growler*, and assured us, that, to make amends for Mr. Steele’s silence, he was resolved to growl at us weekly as long as we should think fit to give him any encouragement.”

17. *The Examiner*. The political lucubrations of Steele in the *Tatler*, though neither numerous, nor written with much asperity, gave such offence to the Tories, who were then rising into power, that they thought it necessary to establish a periodical paper under the title of the *Examiner*, as a defence of their principles and views. The authors of this once celebrated paper were, for the most part, persons of considerable ability; but the virulence and rancour with which they attacked Steele, and calumniated their opponents, reflect no small share of disgrace upon their memory. The early numbers of the *Examiner* were published under the superintendance of Dr. W. King, who was the author of the fifth, eleventh, and twelfth papers. He was assisted by Bolingbroke, by

by Prior, who contributed No. 6; by Dr. Atterbury, and Dr. Friend. Dr. King was soon superseded, however, by Swift, who, commencing with No. 14, wrote thirty-three essays in succession, and then relinquished the task to Mrs. Manley, who concluded the first volume, in point of literary merit, the best portion of the work. The management of this scurrilous undertaking was then entrusted to Mr. Oldisworth, who completed the fifth volume, published nineteen numbers of a sixth, and would probably have printed many more, had not the death of the queen arrested the progress of his pen. The Examiner existed during the four last years of Queen Anne, the first number being dated August 3d, 1710, and the last July 26th, 1714. It had the merit of giving origin to the Whig-Examiner of Addison, to the Reader of Steele, and to,

18. The Medley. This paper, which was not strictly confined to politics, immediately succeeded the Whig-Examiner, and carried on, with considerable spirit, the attack upon Swift and his party. It began on the 5th of October, 1710, under the auspices of Mr. Maynwaring, a gentleman of great accomplishments and ability, and of whom, as intimately connected with Steele, I shall give a short biographical sketch. He was born at Ightfield, in Shropshire, in 1668; and, after his usual grammatical education, was sent, at the age of seventeen, to Christ church, Oxford. Having employed a residence of several years at this university, in the ardent cultivation of classical literature, he retired, for a short time into the country; but, adopting the profession of the law, he found it necessary to fix in the metropolis. Here he prosecuted his studies un-

til the conclusion of the peace of Ryswick, when, availing himself of that event, he visited Paris, and became intimately acquainted with the celebrated Boileau. Upon his return to England, he was made a commissioner of the customs; and on the Accession of Queen Anne, through the interest of the lord-treasurer Godolphin, auditor of the imprests, a place of great pecuniary emolument. In 1705 he was chosen a member of parliament for Preston in Lancashire. He died at St. Alban's, Nov. 13th, 1712, aged 44. Mr. Maynwaring was greatly attached to Mrs. Oldfield, whose theatrical abilities at that time excited the admiration of the lovers of the drama; and by her he left an only son. Oldmixon, who published in 1715, in 8vo. the life and posthumous works of our author, affirms, that he "loved that lady" "for about eight or nine years before his death, and with a passion" "that could hardly have been" "stronger, had it been both her" "and his first love." For Mrs. Oldfield he wrote many prologues and epilogues, and took infinite pains and delight in improving her talents for the stage. The elegance of his manners and taste, and his proficiency in the *belles lettres*, attracted many friends and admirers, and among these were Addison and Steele, the latter of whom dedicated to him the first volume of the Tatler. He was universally allowed, says the Biographia Britannica, to be the best critic of his times; and Mr. Egerton, in his Memoirs of Mrs. Oldfield, has declared, that his learning was without pedantry, his wit without affectation, his judgment without malice, his friendship without interest, his zeal without violence; in a word, he was the best subject, the best friend, the

the best relation, the best master, the best critic, and the best political writer in Great Britain. Though this be doubtless exaggerated praise, Mr. Maynwaring is entitled to most respectable distinction for his good sense and moderation in politics, at a time when faction and party zeal ran with so headstrong a current. His medleys are generally written with much strength of argument, and freedom from abuse. They were continued, with occasional assistance, until August 6th, 1711, extending to forty-five numbers, one of which was contributed by Steele, and another by Anthony Henley; and several were the composition of Mr. Oldmixon.—After an interval of some months, they were resumed, and a new Medley appeared on the 3d of March, 1712, which, having likewise reached to forty-five numbers, finally expired on August 4th, 1712. A selection from the first Medley was published in 1789, by Mr. Nichols, together with the *Lover*, and *Reader*, of Steele.

19. *The Observator*. Though this political paper commenced many years anterior to the *Tatler*, it continued to exist until 1712; when an act of parliament, annexing a stamp of a halfpenny to each half-sheet effected its ruin. It was a weekly Essay, originally published by John Tutchin, who, for his participation in the rebellion of Monmouth, and for a defence of that chieftain, which he subsequently printed, was sentenced by Jefferies to be whipped through several towns in the west. The sentence was carried into execution with so much severity, that the unfortunate man absolutely petitioned James II. to be hanged. Dying in Sept. 1707, his paper was continued by other hands, but ne-

ver merited or acquired much celebrity. Gay, in May, 1711, thus notices it, “*The Observator*, since “our party struggles have run so “high, is much amended for the “better; which is imputed to the “charitable assistance of some out- “lying friends.” And, Swift, in his journal to Stella, dated August 7th, 1712, has exultingly recorded its extinction: “Do you know “that Grub-street is dead and gone “last week? No more ghosts or “murders now for the love of money. I plied it pretty close for “the last fortnight, and published “at least seven papers of my own, “besides some of other people’s; “but now every single half-sheet “pays a halfpenny to the queen. “*The Observator* is fallen.”

20. *The Rambler*. It is probable, from circumstances, which we shall afterwards have occasion to mention, that Dr. Johnson was ignorant of this anticipation of title. The first *Rambler* appeared in 1712, but only one number has escaped the ravages of time; this is in the British Museum, and does not appear, observes the annotator on the *Tatler*, inferior to any of the earlier imitations of the *Tatler*, &c. in respect of wit, humour, or literary composition. To what extent this paper was carried is unknown.

21. *The Lay Monastery*. Sir Richard Blackmore, the chief author of this production, and a most indefatigable writer, was the son of an attorney in the county of Wiltshire, and, after the usual routine of education, was, in 1668, entered at Edmund Hall, Oxford. He took his degree of M. A. in this university in 1676, where he resided thirteen years; and at the expiration of which period, it is probable, that for a short time he assumed

sumed the employment of a school-master. He soon, however, relinquished this occupation for the study of physic, and visiting the continent, graduated at Padua. After a tour of eighteen months, he returned to his native country, and, commencing practice in London, was created a Fellow of the College of Physicians in 1687. Having acquired considerable celebrity in his profession, he had the honour, in 1697, of being appointed physician in ordinary to King William; this was speedily followed by the rank of knighthood; and when Queen Anne ascended the throne, he was also nominated one of her physicians, and continued to officiate as such for several years. He died in October, 1729, after a long life of industry, piety, and unblemished morality.

The numerous compositions of Sir Richard Blackmore, may be arranged under the heads of *medical, poetical, theological, and miscellaneous*. They are now, in a great measure, and perhaps not undeservedly, neglected; though, as they were uniformly written in support of virtue and moral order, and occasionally display passages of some literary merit, they were by no means proper subjects for the ridicule and abuse with which they were indiscriminately overwhelmed. He acquired, however, no inconsiderable share of fame by his first epic production, entitled *Prince Arthur*, a poem which passed through three editions in two years; could boast of Loche and Molyneux among the number of its admirers, and which strongly excited the attention of the critics. Unhappily, the encouragement of the public given to this first effort, stimulated Sir Richard to further exertions, and by the year 1723, he had produced three more bulky

epics, *King Arthur*, *Eliza*, and *Alfred*; the four poems including no less than forty-four books. With the mediocrity and perseverance of our author, the world, however, soon grew satiated, and his heroes were scarcely ushered into life, before they began to exhibit symptoms of dissolution. Yet, notwithstanding the length of these poetical flights, Sir Richard found time for a vast variety of other excursions into the regions of Parnassus; and among these, for one on which his reputation, as a disciple of the Muses, seems now solely to rest. In 1712 appeared his *Creation, a philosophical poem* in seven books, of which both the matter and style have been highly commended by Addison and Johnson; the latter affirming that "this poem, if he had written nothing else, would have transmitted him to posterity among the first favourites of the English muse." To this opinion few will probably assent; and though the recommendation of the doctor has introduced this work into the body of our English poetry, we may venture to predict that it will not long maintain its station. Splendid as the subject is, the sentiments and imagery are trite, and the versification insufferably tedious and languid.

Of the prose of Blackmore, his *Essays*, and the *Lay Monastery* are the best. This last production was intended as a sequel to the *Spectators*, the seventh volume of which was at that time supposed to have closed the undertaking. It was originally published in single papers, under the title of the *Lay Monk*, and the first number appeared on November 16th, 1713. It was presented to the public thrice a week, on Monday, Wednesday, and Friday; and having reached

reached forty numbers, expired on February 15th, 1714. It was republished the same year in one volume, and under its present title, and passed through a second edition, which now lies before me, in 1727. Sir Richard was assisted in this work by Mr. Hughes, who wrote all the Friday's papers.

The *Lay Monastery*, though never popular, contains some essays of no inconsiderable merit, and, in imitation of the *Spectator*, has adopted a dramatic plan, for the purpose of binding the parts into a whole; an advantage of which, unfortunately, few periodical papers have since availed themselves. That Blackmore very justly appreciated the value of this resource, and had a correct idea of the peculiar laws of periodical composition, as exemplified in the *Spectator*, is strikingly evident from the first paragraph of his preface. "The world," says he, "has been obliged to an author of distinguished merit, now living, for having been the inventor of a manner of writing no less entertaining than any which had been established by the practice of the most celebrated ancients. The form into which the best writer among the Romans generally chose to cast his thoughts, was that of dialogue, or of conversations related, in which the persons introduced were all philosophers, and the discourses wholly serious; yet this he borrowed from Plato and others of the Greeks, whom he professed to imitate. But the introducing a set of persons of different humours and characters, acting on some imaginary occasion, which might draw out a variety of incidents and discourses, and in which every paper should be an entire piece, at the same time

"that it is part of the whole, is the invention of the writer already mentioned, who seems at once to have introduced it, and carried it to perfection."

In conformity with the approbation expressed in this passage, Sir Richard has formed a club consisting of six characters, who, retiring to a house in the country, assemble twice a week for the purpose of reading and discussing the merits of various essays of their own composition on literature and manners. This select fraternity consists of a Mr. Johnson, a gentleman of great genius, erudition, and accomplishments; of Dr. Lacon, a physician; of Sir Eustace Locker, whose favourite studies are metaphysics and theology; of Sir Arthur Wimbeldon, a widower, a man of uncommon beneficence and humanity; of Ned Freeman, a compound of gallantry, good humour, and classical elegance; and of Mr. Ravenscroft, the secretary, the history of whose eventful life is given in the third number.

Of these personages, five owe their existence to Sir Richard Blackmore; and the sixth, the portrait of Ned Freeman, is the conception of Mr. Hughes. They are supported with consistency and spirit; and it was the opinion of Hughes, that, had not Sir Richard been unexpectedly diverted from the prosecution of the plan, the work would have gained its share of popularity, and might have been continued with credit and advantage to its authors. The style is, in several of the papers, elegant and correct, and the subject-matter occasionally interesting. Two Essays, Nos. 31 and 32, contain an ingenious parallel between poetry and painting; they are, being Monday and Wednesday papers, the composition

position of Sir Richard ; and, as specimens of his diction and manner, I shall select from the first of them a couple of passages.

“ With what wonderful success
“ has nature painted all the scenes
“ of this wide theatre, the world !
“ How masterly are her designs,
“ how strong and bold her draughts,
“ how delicate her touches, and
“ how rich and beautiful is her colouring ! It is with inimitable
“ skill that she manages and proportions her lights and shades,
“ and mixes and works in her colours ; the gardens smile with
“ her fruits of different dyes, and
“ the verdure of the fields is beautifully varied by different flowers. What pencil can express
“ the glowing blushes of the rose,
“ the glossy white of the lily,
“ or the rich crimson of the amaranth ? What master can delineate the changeable colours in
“ the neck of the dove, and in
“ the tail of the peacock, arising
“ from the rays of light glancing
“ and playing among their feathers ? ”

“ As the epic and tragic poets,
“ by the warm ideas they convey,
“ touch all the springs and movements of our minds, and take
“ possession of our hearts, by propagating their own passions, and
“ transmitting their very souls into
“ our bosoms ; so the masters of
“ the great manner in painting history, who express in their pieces
“ great design, generous sentiments, and the dignity of the
“ sublime style, animate their canvas with the most lively and active
“ passions. All the emotions
“ of the heart appear in the faces
“ of their figures with the utmost
“ spirit and vivacity : the whole
“ soul is collected and exerted in
“ the eyes, which sometimes flash

“ with fury, and sometimes are
“ transported with joy, or uplifted
“ with admiration ; in one piece
“ they are filled with horror and
“ consternation, and at another
“ they melt with tender affection.

“ What poetical design and description, what an epic imagination does Raphael show in his
“ celebrated piece of *Constantine and Maxentius* ! And what
“ masterly and admirable painting
“ does Virgil express, when he
“ describes the battle of the Latins
“ and the Trojans.”

22. *The Mercator, or Commerce Retrieved.* So general had become the taste for periodical composition, that even subjects of a commercial as well as a political nature, were conceived capable of being published to advantage in this form. *Mercator* appeared in 1713, and was soon followed by

23. *The British Merchant, or Commerce Preserved.* Both these papers are noticed in the following advertisement, at the close of No. 129 of the *Guardian*, dated August 8th, 1713. “ This day is published, *The British Merchant, or Commerce Preserved*, No. 1, to be published every Tuesday and Friday, in answer to the *Mercator, or Commerce Retrieved.* ” It cannot be supposed, that productions of this kind would long survive the occasion which gave them birth ; and it is probable, that *Mercator* and *The British Merchant* can now only be said to have once existed.

24. *The Rhapsody.*

25. *The Historian.* Of these papers, over which time seems to have thrown nearly an impenetrable veil, I know nothing more than that it is with some probability we assign their publication to the period under discussion ; their titles

titles lead, in some degree, to a general conception of their contents

26. *The High German Doctor.* This tissue of nonsense and political abuse, was the production of one Philip Horneck, who is very deservedly stigmatized in the *Dunciad* of Pope. It consists of one hundred numbers, which were published twice a week; the first being dated May 4th, 1714, and the last, May 12th, 1715. They were collected in 2 vols. 12mo., of which the first was published in 1715, and the second in 1719. After much loss of time in perusing this mass of ribaldry and inanity, I can safely declare that there is not a single paragraph in the work which merits preservation.

It should not be forgotten, that during a great part of the five years which this sketch embraces, three periodical papers, that were noticed in our first essay illustrative of the *Tatler*, &c continued to meet the public eye; the *Rehearsal* of Leslie, the *British Apollo*, and the *Review* of de Foe; the first expired in 1711, the second in the same year, and the third in 1713.

Such and so numerous were the periodical compositions that attempted to imitate and to rival the essays of Steele and Addison, whilst the town was yet daily receiving their elegant contributions; that they compleatly failed in their design, is evident from the circumstance, that not one of them, with the exception of the *Lay Monastery*, can be read with any degree of interest or pleasure: and even this small volume is so neglected and obscure, that it is now procured with much difficulty.

It was a step, indeed, fatal to the reputation and longevity of the

greater number of the authors of these productions, that, when they found themselves incompetent to contend with their prototypes in wit, humour, or literature, they endeavoured to attract attention by depreciating and abusing what they could not imitate, and by presenting a copy which retained all the defects in caricature, and scarcely any of the beauties of the original.

Of this charge we have sufficient proof from an appeal to their contemporaries; one of whom, in an *Essay on the present State of Wit*, written in 1711, has remarked, that “they seemed at first to think that what was only the garnish of the former *Tatlers*, was that which recommended them, and not those substantial entertainments which they every where abound in.

“Accordingly, they were continually talking of their maid, night-cap, spectacles, and Charles Lillie. However, there were, now and then, some faint endeavours at humour, and sparks of wit, which the town, for want of better entertainment, was content to hunt after, through a heat of impertinencies: but even those are at present become wholly invisible, and quite swallowed up in the blaze of the *Spectator*.”

They found the new *Spectator* come on like a torrent, and sweep a way all before him; they despaired ever to equal him;—and therefore, rather chose to fall on the author, and to call out for help to all good christians, by assuring them, again and again, that they were the first, original, true, and undisputed Isaac Bickerstaff.

To imitate the *Tatler* in its exterior, in its form and subdivisions,

as it originally commenced, was a task which might be executed by the most inferior writers; and consequently, Tatlers, addressed rather to the eye than to the understanding, inundated the press; to catch, however, the spirit which

so abundantly animated the greater, and especially the latter, portion of this work, was an achievement beyond their strength, and, of course, the public soon justly consigned such imitators to oblivion.

ON THE POETIC TALENTS OF DR. JOHNSON.

[From the same.]

“**A**BOUT two months after this address to Mr. Urban, the poetical powers of Johnson were exhibited to the world in all their strength, by the publication of his *London*, a poem in imitation of the third satire of Juvenal. It appeared on the same morning with Pope's satire, intituled “1738,” and immediately attracted so many readers, that a second edition was required in the course of a week. Dodsley purchased the entire property of this poem for ten guineas, a sum certainly disproportioned to the merit of the work; but if the author's pecuniary reward was not great, the reputation, which he acquired by the effort, must have equalled his most sanguine expectations. It was praised wherever it was read; and, what more particularly must have delighted Johnson, it was praised by Pope, who, having for some time in vain solicitously endeavoured to discover the new poet, is said to have declared, that “whoever he was, he would soon “be *deterré*.”

As this spirited imitation of Juvenal forms an epoch in our author's literary life, and is one of his best *poetical* productions, I shall consider it as introductory to

an uninterrupted consideration of his compositions in this branch, and to a discussion of his general character as a POET; and this plan I shall pursue with regard to the other numerous departments of literature in which he excelled, and according to the order in which the first in merit, of a class, shall in succession rise to view; persuaded that, by this mode, the monotony arising from a stricter chronological detail of his various writings, the arrangement hitherto adopted by his biographers, may, in a great measure, be obviated.

Of the three imitators of the third satire of the Roman poet, Boileau, Oldham and Johnson, the latter is, by many degrees, the most vigorous and poetical. No man, indeed, was better calculated to transfuse the stern invective, the sublime philosophy, and nervous painting of Juvenal, than our author; and his *London*, whilst it rivals the original in these respects, is, at the same time, greatly superior to it in purity of illustration, and harmony of versification. The felicity with which he has adapted the imagery and allusions of the Latin poem to modern manners, vices, and events; and the richness and depth of thought which he

he exhibits when the hint is merely taken from the Roman bard, or when he chooses altogether to desert him, are such as to render this satire the noblest moral poem in our language.

At the period when Johnson wrote his *London*, he must, from his peculiar circumstances, have been prone to imbibe all the warmth and indignation of the ancient satirist, who depicts in the boldest colors the unmerited treatment to which indigence is subjected, and the multiform oppressions arising from tyranny and ill-acquired wealth. He was, indeed, at this time, "steeped up to the lips in poverty," and was likewise a zealous opponent of what he deemed a corrupt administration. It is impossible to read the following passage, one of the finest in the poem, and especially its concluding line, which the author distinguished by capitals, without deeply entering into, and severely sympathising with the feelings and sufferings of the writer.

By numbers here from shame or censure free,
All crimes are safe but hated poverty.
This, only this, the rigid law pursues,
This, only this, provokes the snarling muse.
The sober trader at a tatter'd cloak,
Wakes from his dream, and labours for a joke;
With brisker air the silken courtiers gaze,
And turn the varied thought a thousand ways.
Of all the grief that harass the distress'd,
Sure the most bitter is a scornful jest;
Fate never wounds more deep the generous heart,
Than when a blockhead's insult points the dart.
Has Heaven reserv'd, in pity to the poor,
No pathless waste, or undiscover'd shore?

No secret island in the boundless main?
No peaceful desert yet unclaimed by Spain?

Quick let us rise, the happy seats explore,

And bear oppression's insolence no more.

This mournful truth is every where confess'd,

Slow rises worth, by poverty depress'd.

Of the energy and compression which characterize the sentiment and diction of "*London*," this last line is a striking example; for the original, though strong in its expression, is less terse and happy.

Haud facile emergunt, quorum virtutibus obstat
Res angusta domi.

The next poem of distinguished merit which Johnson produced, was the *Prologue for the opening of Drury-lane Theatre* in 1747. His friend, and former pupil, David Garrick, had this year obtained the office of joint patentee and manager of Drury-lane; and the prologue of Johnson, whilst it traced with skill the varied fortunes of the stage, and of dramatic taste, was intended as a compliment to the new manager, under whose direction it was predicted that the reign of Nature and of Sense would revive. The commencement of these verses, which delineates the genius of Shakspeare, is, in point of invention and enthusiasm, the first that *poetry* had produced upon the subject; the tribute of Gray does not exceed it. In *prose*, the portrait of our great dramatist, by Dryden was unrivalled, until Mr. Morgan, in his "*Essay on the dramatic character of Sir John Falstaff*," produced a delineation, the vivacity and discrimination of which demand almost unqualified praise. With what a vivid spirit of

of animation has he clothed the following prediction, alluding to Voltaire, who, in the arrogance of criticism, had termed the immortal poet a *barbarian*! He exclaims, "Whatever may be the neglect of some, or the censure of others, there are those who firmly believe that this wild and uncultivated *Barbarian* has not obtained one half of his fame.—When the hand of time shall have brushed off his present editors and commentators, and when the very name of Voltaire, and even the memory of the language in which he has written, shall be no more, the Apalachian mountains, the banks of the Ohio, and the plains of Sciola, shall resound with the accents of this *Barbarian*. In his native tongue he shall roll the genuine passions of nature; nor shall the griefs of Lear be alleviated, or the charms and wit of Rosalind be abated, by time."

In the commencement of the year 1749, nearly eleven years after the production of his "London," our author published his second imitation of the Roman Satirist, entitled *The Vanity of Human Wishes*, being the tenth satire of Juvenal imitated. For this poem, though his literary fame had considerably increased in the space which had elapsed between the two performances, he received from Dodsley but fifteen guineas. If with this sum, for a piece of no great length, he was satisfied, he certainly was not, and had no reason to be, with the general remuneration of his labours; and in the poem before us, he has drawn in one line, and in his strongest manner, the usual fate of literary labour:

Deign on the passing world to turn thine
eyes,
And pause a while from letters, to be
wise;
There mark what ills the scholar's life
assail,
Toil, envy, want, the patron, and the
gaol.

The *Vanity of Human Wishes*, the subject of which is in a great degree founded on the Alcibiades of Plato, possesses not the point and fire which animates the "London." It breathes, however, a strain of calm and dignified philosophy, much more pleasing to the mind, and certainly much more consonant to truth, than the party exaggeration of the prior satire. The poet's choice of modern examples, in place of those brought forward by the ancient bard, is happy and judicious; and he has every where availed himself, and in a style the most impressive, of the solemnity, the pathos, and sublime morality of the christian code. In consequence of this substitution of a purer system of ethics, and of a striking selection of characters, among which that of Charles of Sweden is conspicuously eminent, the whole has the air of an original, and, to be understood, requires not to be collated with its prototype.

To enter into competition with the tenth satire of Juvenal, which is, without doubt, the most perfect composition of its author, was a daring and a hazardous attempt. Dryden had led the way, and though occasionally successful, has failed to equal the general merit of the Latin poem. The imitation of Johnson, on the contrary, may be said to vie with the Roman in every line, and in some instances to surpass the original; particularly in the sketch of Charles, and

in the conclusion of the satire, which, though nobly moral as it is in the page of Juvenal, is greatly heightened by the pen of Johnson, and forms one of the finest lessons of piety and resignation discoverable in the works of any uninspired writer. After reprobating the too frequent folly of our wishes and our prayers, it is inquired of the poet whether we shall upon no occasion implore the mercy of the skies; he replies,

Inquirer cease; petitions yet remain,
Which Heav'n may hear, nor deem religion vain.
Still raise for good the supplicating voice,
But leave to Heaven the measure and the choice.
Safe in his pow'r, whose eyes discern afar
The secret ambush of a specious prayer;
Implore his aid, in his decisions rest,
Secure whate'er he gives, he gives the best.
Yet when the sense of sacred presence fires,
And strong devotion to the skies aspires,
Pour forth thy fervours for a healthful mind,
Obedient passions, and a will resigned,
For love, which scarce collective man can fill;
For patience, sov'reign o'er transmuted ill;
For faith, that panting for a happier seat,
Counts death kind nature's signal of retreat:
These goods for man the laws of heav'n ordain,
These goods he grants, who grants the pow'r to gain;
With these celestial wisdom calms the mind.
And makes the happiness she does not find.

The month succeeding the publication of "The Vanity of Human Wishes," witnessed the crisis of our poet's dramatic fame; on the 6th of February, 1749, *Irene* was brought upon the stage, after being submitted, though with

great reluctance by the author, to the alterations which Garrick, from his knowledge of stage effect, had very properly suggested. Yet, though the whole force of the theatre was employed on the occasion, and no direct interruption was given to the representation, it was tolerated but nine nights, and then vanished from the theatre for ever.

It is somewhat singular, that Johnson, who has pointed out with so much judgment and precision the defects of Addison's *Cato*, and, in his Prologue on the opening of Drury-lane Theatre, has censured the dramatic poetry of the eighteenth century, as substituting a declamation for passion, should have himself produced a tragedy more frigid and declamatory, than perhaps any drama in the annals of the English stage. *Irene* can boast of a strict adherence to the unities; of harmonious versification: of diction vigorous and splendid; of sentiment morally correct and philosophically beautiful; but its fable is without interest, its characters without discrimination, and neither terror nor pity is excited.

If it fail, however, as a drama, in delineating the ebullitions of passions, it will, as a series of ethic dialogues, replete with striking observations on human conduct, and rich in poetic expression, be long studied and admired in the closet. No one of the productions of Johnson, indeed, was more carefully elaborated than his *Irene*; and, though commenced at an early period of life, no one more evidently discovers his exclusive love of moral philosophy, and his ample store of nervous and emphatic language.

Of the numerous passages which illustrate this remark, and which, for their moral excellence, should dwell upon the memory, I shall in
this

this place adduce two, in conception and in execution alike happy : Demetrius, addressing the aged Visier Cali on the dangers of protracting the blow which he intended until the morrow, exclaims,

To-morrow's action ! can that hoary wisdom,
Borne down with years, still doat upon to-morrow !
That fatal mistress of the young, the lazy,
The coward and the fool, condemn'd to lose
An useless life in waiting for to-morrow,
To gaze, with longing eyes, upon to-morrow,
Till interposing death destroys the prospect !
Strange ! that this gen'ral fraud from day to day
Should fill the world with wretches undetected.
The soldier, lab'ring through a winter's march,
Still sees to-morrow drest in robes of triumph ;
Still to the lover's long-expecting arms,
To-morrow brings the visionary bride.
But thou, too old to bear another cheat.
Learn that the present hour alone is man's.

Aspasia, reprobating the ambition and meditated apostacy of Irene, endeavours to reconcile her mind to the loss of life, rather than of virtue and religion, and bids her,

Reflect that life and death, affecting sounds !
Are only varied modes of endless being ;
Reflect that life, like ev'ry other blessing,
Derives its value from its use alone ;
Not for itself, but for a nobler end
Th' Eternal gave it, and that end is virtue.
When inconsistent with a greater good,
Reason commands to cast the less away ;
Thus life, with loss of wealth, is well preserv'd,
And virtue cheaply sav'd, with loss of life.

In the first act, scene the second,

is a passage which has been frequently and justly admired ; it is put into the mouth of the Visier Cali, who, execrating the miseries of arbitrary power, alludes to a report which he had received, of the nicely balanced structure of the British constitution.

If there be any land as fame reports,
Where common laws restrain the prince and subject,
A happy land, where circulating pow'r
Flows through each member of th' embodied state ;
Sure, not unconscious of the mighty blessing,
Her grateful sons shine bright with ev'ry virtue ;
Untainted with the lust of Innovation,
Sure all unite to hold her league of rule
Unbroken as the sacred chain of nature,
That links the jarring elements in peace.

" These are British sentiments," remarks Mr. Murphy ; " above forty years ago, they found an echo in the breast of applauding audiences ; and to this hour they are the voice of the people, in defiance of the metaphysics and the new rights of certain politicians, who would gladly find their private advantage in the disasters of their country ; a race of men, quibus nulla ex honesto spes."

It is worthy of remark, that Cicero, more than eighteen hundred years ago, seems to have pointed out with great precision the constituent parts of the British constitution. In theory, at least, the ancients appear to have been well aware of the value of a mixed constitution ; and though they had not the happiness of seeing the fabric realized, and probably considered such an event as altogether impracticable, they had the merit, however, of conceiving and depicting the blessing. How closely, in the following fragment, does the great

philosopher approximate to that constitution, which, long after Rome had ceased to exist as the capital of the world, was to rise an unrivalled monument of the aggregate wisdom of Britain! 'Statu esse optime constitutam rempublicam, quæ ex tribus generibus illis, regali, optimo, et populari confusa modice, nec puniendo irritet animum immanem ac ferum, nec omnia præter mittendo, licentia cives deteriores reddat.'

After the four capital poems that we have just noticed, a fifth may be brought forward, which, in its kind, approaches much nearer to perfection than any of the preceding; I allude to the stanzas On the Death of Mr. Robert Levett, the constant companion of Johnson at his morning's meal, for near forty years. This reserved but most amiable man was a practitioner in physic among the lower orders of people in London; his fees were very small, but his business so extensive, that his walk was frequently from Houndsditch to Marylebone; he lived, however, in great obscurity, though perpetually and conscientiously employed in mitigating the sorrows of poverty and disease.

The stanzas on this man of great but humble utility are beyond all praise. The wonderful powers of Johnson were never shewn to greater advantage than on this occasion, where the subject, from its obscurity and mediocrity, seemed to bid defiance to poetical efforts; it is, in fact, warm from the heart, and is the only poem from the pen of Johnson that has been bathed with tears. Would to God, that on every medical man who attends the poor, the following encomiums could be justly passed!

Well tried through many a varying year,
See Levett to the grave descend;
Officious, innocent, sincere,
Of ev'ry friendless name the friend.

When fainting nature call'd for aid,
And hov'ring death prepar'd the blow,
His vig'rous remedy display'd
The pow'r of art without the show.

In mis'ry's darkest cavern known,
His useful care was ever nigh,
Where hopeless Anguish pour'd his
groan,
And lonely Want retired to die.

How boldly painted, how exquisitely pathetic, as a description of the sufferings of human life, is this last stanza! I am acquainted with nothing superior to it in the productions of the moral muse.

Of the residue of the English poetry of Johnson, the greater portion consists of lyric effusions; a department in which he did not possess the requisites for excellence. He wanted enthusiasm for the higher ode, and gaiety for the lesser; in his perception of the beauties of nature, also, he was defective; and his odes on the seasons are, with respect to description, lifeless copies of traditionary imagery; that on Winter is the best, and this, though written with vivacity, is but a transcript from Horace. The Address to Friendship is of the moral species of ode, and therefore better adapted to his powers; in its sentiment it is tender and correct; in its diction elegant and beautiful. His Evening, an Ode, furnishes a pleasing proof that the severe moralist occasionally felt, and could adequately describe, the influence of female charms;—he thus, in a strain of voluptuous delicacy, addresses his beloved Stella;

——the Queen of Night,
Round us pours a lambent light;
Light that seems but just to show
Breasts that bear, and cheeks that glow.

To the English poetry of Johnson, may now be added, a very beautiful translation of some noble lines from the *Medea* of Euripides. It has escaped all the editors of his works, and was very lately introduced to the world in a volume of considerable merit, entitled "Translations from the Greek Anthology, with Tales and Miscellaneous Poems." A parody, indeed, by our author upon this passage of the Grecian poet was published by Mrs. Piozzi in her "Anecdotes," but it is of little value, while the following version has preserved all the elegance and pathos of the original.

Med. Eurip. v. 190.

The rites deriv'd from ancient days,
With thoughtless reverence we praise;
The rites that taught us to combine
The joys of music and of wine;
That bade the feast, the song, the bowl,
O'erfill the saturated soul;
But ne'er the lute nor lyre applied,
To soothe Despair, or soften Pride,
Nor call'd them to the gloomy cells
Where Madness raves and Vengeance
swells,

Where Hate sits musing to betray,
And Murder meditates his prey.
To dens of guilt and shades of care,
Ye sons of melody repair,
Nor deign the festive hour to cloy
With superfluity of joy;
The board with varied plenty crown'd
May spare the luxury of sound.

Of this exquisite morsel of Euripides. Dr. Joseph Warton has likewise attempted an imitation, which possesses, in a striking degree, the tender sentiment of the tragedian, clothed in versification of the sweetest melody. I shall transcribe it for the gratification of my readers, and in order that they may compare it with the more literal copy of Johnson.

Queen of ev'ry moving measure,
Sweetest source of purest pleasure,
Music! why thy powers employ
Only for the sons of joy:
Only for the smiling guests
At natal or at nuptial feasts?
Rather thy lenient numbers pour
On those whom secret griefs devour.
Bid be still the throbbing hearts
Of those whom death or absence parts,
And with some softly whisper'd air
Smooth the brow of dumb despair."

HISTORY OF ABYSSINIA.

[From Mr. SALT's Dissertation inserted in Lord VALENTIA's Voyages and Travels.]

"**A**BYSSINIA is a corruption of the Arabic word *Habesh*, signifying 'convena.' This name has been invariably used by the Arabians, though adopted in modern times only by the Abyssinians, who prefer that of their different provinces, as Amharians, Tigrians, or the more general one of Cashtam (Christians), of which

they are extremely proud, and which generally was the first word they addressed to us on our entering the country, accompanying it by laying hold of a blue silk string round their necks, which is with them the indisputable proof of their being entitled to the appellation. In their books they are styled Ethiopians, sons of Ethiopia,

Agazi,

Agazi, and Axomians; by a similar name to which (Axomites) they were alone designated among the Romans. Many authors, particularly Ludolf, a writer who has entered very deeply into their history, have supposed them to have passed over from Arabia; but to this there are many objections, for I do not recollect any instance of a nation having sent back settlers to its mother country; yet we have an account in Procopius, of a band of the Axomites, on invading Arabia, having been so pleased with it, that they gave up their own country, and continued there. It appears more probable from the general tenor of their history, that they were refugees from Egypt, who conquered, and mingled with, the aborigines of the country; else, from what source could they derive their veneration for the Nile, of the consequence of which, in Abyssinia, they could form no idea? Whence their style of building, so totally different from any in Arabia? Or their written character which is as essentially different from that of the ancient Cusic? The Greek or Ethiopic written from the left to right, the Cusic from right to left; the former having each character distinct and square in its form, and the latter chiefly consisted of curves running wildly into each other. Even the very form of their government, which always appears to have been monarchical, points out Egypt, rather than Arabia, for their origin.

But as this is a point of considerable importance, it may not be uninteresting to enter a little deeper into the discussion.

In the earliest records of history, we find the Ethiopians represented as a very numerous and powerful

people; their importance, however, progressively declined, as Egypt advanced in consequence; for as the population of that country increased, it naturally extended its conquests in the direction of the Nile, compelling the Ethiopians to retire towards the South. Meroe seems to have been the point at which their progress was stopped; yet, beyond this, bands from Egypt afterwards emigrated and settled themselves among the Ethiopians: of one of these flights we have an account in Herodotus, who mentions that it consisted of two hundred and forty thousand in number; that they were called, as a nation, Asmack, or Askam; that they fled from Psammiticus six hundred and thirty years before the time of that historian, and went as far beyond Meroe as that place is from Elephantine. These people are considered by Dr. Vincent to be the same as those described by Strabo, under the name of Sebritoe, or Sembritoe (*Advenæ*), who inhabited all the country above Meroe, and extended across the mountains nearly to the Red Sea. They are also described, more accurately perhaps, by Pliny under the names of Semberritoe and Asachie, on the mountains. These I consider, with Dr. Vincent, to be no other than the Axomites, or as they term themselves in their most ancient books, Agazi.

The Abyssinians, in their modern books, lay claim to great antiquity, as being descended from Ham. They also boast that one of their queens, named Maguedâ, was the Queen of the South, who visited Solomon, by whom she had a son named Menilech, from whom their present kings are lineally descended. The only thing like

evidence:

evidence on this subject, depends on the authenticity of a series of chronicles, said to have been kept regularly by the priests at the ancient city of Axum. The authority of these has, however, been with reason disputed, as it is scarcely possible that they should have been preserved, considering the wars in which the country has continually been engaged. Besides, the evidence of the Axum inscription seems decisive against them, as a king certainly would not call himself son of Mars, who prided himself on his descent from Solomon. It seems, on the whole, probable, that this idea was borrowed from their dependents, the Homerites, and was assumed long after the introduction of Christianity.

Whatever their religion may have been in early times, they do not appear to have been exclusively attached to it, since, when the Romans succeeded to the trade of the Red Sea, they found the Axomites, as they were then called ready to receive, together with their merchandize, the worship of their gods. This is proved by the inscription I found at Axum, where the sovereign of the country styles himself the son of the God, the invincible Mars, even if we do not refer to the second Adulitic, which if allowed to have been erected by an Abyssinian king, would be still more satisfactory.

It is only about one or two centuries after the commencement of the Christian æra, that the Abyssinian history begins to emerge from obscurity. A very close commercial connection was then formed with the country by the traders from Egypt, as appears in the *Periplus*, and the Greek language became so common in the country, that it was used by the

king of Abyssinia to commemorate his exploits even so far in the interior as Axum, which also most strongly corroborates the knowledge of Greek attributed by the *Periplus* to Zoskalis.

This connection with Egypt seems to have added greatly to their power and consequence in the Red Sea: for in the first information we have of them, we find them confined to the western coast, and the trade chiefly in the hands of Arabians: but in a few centuries afterwards, we perceive they became masters of the greater part of the Arabian coast, and appointed viceroys over the Homerites, who, after conquering the Sabeans, had in their turn become subject to the King of Axum. To effect this, however, required a long period of time; and might never have taken place, had not a peculiar series of external and favourable circumstances, concurred to farther their progress.

After the Phœnicians had ceased to be a maritime power, Egypt had occupied the Red Sea with her fleets, and had engrossed all the valuable productions of India and the east of Africa: but she was content to hold this monopoly in conjunction with the Arabians, who, from time immemorial, had been joint possessors of the trade. When the dynasty of the Ptolemies had been overthrown and Egypt had become a province of the Roman Empire, the Romans succeeded of course to this trade: but the genius of that people was ill-formed for commerce; and the very nature of their government was such, as to render their power of short duration in this part of the world; for so long only could they hope to hold it, as they followed the line marked out to them by
their

their predecessors. On the contrary, instead of adding strength to the union that ought to have subsisted between them and the Arabians, their desire of conquest led them to take possession of their sea ports, and even to send an army into the heart of their country. In this expedition, however, they effected nothing of consequence, but were harassed, baffled, and driven back with disgrace. The remoteness, too, of their seat of government, was in itself alone sufficient to prevent a long continuance even of their influence here; for the viceroys of Egypt were more likely to think of enriching themselves, than of benefiting the Egyptian traders: besides that the Empire itself was hastening fast to its end. These circumstances, added to the supineness and indolence of the Arabians, made an opening for the neighbouring powers, too advantageous to be long neglected; and accordingly we find, that it was shortly afterwards laid hold of, and by a nation which, until the Christian æra, had been known only by vague report.

These were the very Egyptian tribes, which, mingling with the ancient inhabitants of the country, had extended their conquests eastward, and had established their power at Axum, under a feudal sovereignty; a government which, more than all others, is likely to attach the neighbouring tribes to its interest, since it does not require any change in their general system of policy, to enable them to become an integral part of the state. From Axum, their conquests soon extended to the Red Sea: and here, finding friends in the inhabitants of the city of Adulis (which had also been built by refugees from Egypt), they together

formed a very powerful nation, which was enabled to assume a consequence in the Red Sea, that the then possessors of the trade were unequal to oppose. Of these facts we have information also in the Adulitic and Axum inscriptions, and in the *Periplus*, written, I conceive, after the time of Pliny, who, except Strabo, was the first to notice this rising nation; the latter writer having only remarked, in his account of the Ethiopians, that “as yet none of the Ethiopians had interfered with the commerce of the Red Sea.” From the date of the Adulitic inscription, their power became supreme in this part of the world; and they formed a maritime barrier between the Romans and the Persians, which induced the former to conciliate them by repeated embassies, and annual presents, the magnificence of which strongly points out the consequence that they held in the scale of eastern politics, which consequence continued, in some degree, until a considerable time after the rise of the Arabians under Mahomet.

As idolatry declined among the Romans, by the same channel that the worship of Mars had been introduced, the truer religion of Christ, found its way into Abyssinia, and at length was happily established as the religion of the country, about the year 330, in the reign of Abreha, or, as he was called by the Romans, *Acizana*, (who had at this time taken his brother *Abybeha*, or *Saeizana*, to share in the empire). The persons to whom the introduction of Christianity is attributed, are *Fruementius* and *Ædesius*, according to the account given by *Rufinius*, who declares that he had it from *Ædesius* himself, who also returned from Abyssinia, and was made Bishop of Tyre: but he spoke of it as in India, which occasioned much

much confusion; yet it is most clearly made out to refer to the Axomites, by St. Athanasius, and Constantius's letter to Aëizana and Saeizana; and that the former reigned at Axum, is clearly established by the Axum inscription.

Frumentius and Ædesius, two young men, Christians, but undaunted, in company with one Meropius, a Tyrian, were shipwrecked on the coast, where, being captured by the barbarians, Meropius was killed; but the young men were taken before the King of Axum, and accepted into his service. Afterwards, on the king's death, they rose to great honours, even to the administration of the government, by the appointment of the Queen, during the minority of her son.

By their influence, the foundation was laid for the conversion of the Abyssinians; and for the purpose of promoting it, Frumentius returned to Egypt, and was there appointed Bishop of Axum by Athanasius, in which capacity he returned to Abyssinia. On the disgrace of St. Athanasius, Frumentius was attacked by the Arian party, as appears by a letter from the Emperor Constantius to the Kings Aiezana and Sazana, now extant in St. Athan: Apol. (vide B) requiring that they would send Frumentius to Alexandria. An embassy also was sent about this time for the same purpose into Arabia and Abyssinia, as appears in Philostorges an Arian writer; and it is not improbable, that by this embassy was sent the letter of Constantius above referred to. The chief of this embassy was Theophilus, an Arian bishop. The account of his mission is valuable, and appears to me not to have been before sufficiently noticed.

He was an Indian, who in Constantine's reign was sent as a hostage from the Divæi; and being a man of great learning and knowledge, was afterwards raised to the episcopal dignity. In this mission he is said to have carried out two hundred Capadocian horses, besides other presents, to the eastern princes. He built three churches, one at Tapharon in Arabia, another at the Roman emporium at Aden, and another on the island of Ormuz. He then passed over to Diabé, and to many other parts of India; crossing from Arabia, he went over to the Æthiopians called Axomites, who lived on the left side, to those sailing up the Red Sea, and who were so called from their metropolis, Axum. Having there settled every thing to his satisfaction, he returned to the Roman territory. Besides his extensive learning, he is recorded to have understood medicine (*hunc enim divina virtute morbos curare fama celebras erat*). His success in Abyssinia, however, though asserted in general terms, can scarcely be allowed, when we consider the high favour in which Frumentius was held; for if we may believe the Abyssinian annals, which here are perfectly consistent with the Byzantine writers, both he and the other missionaries with him, were, on his return, received with open arms by the chiefs, treated with high honour and respect, and by the common people almost venerated as divine agents. No nation, indeed, ever received the Christian religion with more willingness than the Abyssinians, so that a great part of them were in a short time baptized to the faith; lands were set apart for the priesthood; churches were erected, and others afterwards excavated out of the solid rocks, by workmen sent

sent for out of Egypt, by the orders of the Abyssinian emperors, and which they to this day retain. One of these I saw at Abbahasuba, which is undoubtedly of great antiquity, and resembles much the architecture of Egypt. With the rites of Christianity, however, they either incorporated many ceremonies which they had borrowed from the Jews, or, which is perhaps as likely, they received Christianity mixed with many Jewish rites, which had not, in the early periods of the church in Egypt, been so decidedly separated from it. Over this church, from its first foundation, the supremacy of the Patriarch of Alexandria seems to have been acknowledged, for the Emperor Justin writes to Asterius, Bishop of Alexandria, to incite the King of the Axomites against Dupaan; and it was wisely determined that the chief priest, or Aboona, should be a stranger appointed by him; thus securing to so remote a country, on the death of each Aboona, a renewed supply of learning and Christian knowledge, superior at least to what was likely to be found there. In subsequent periods, from time to time, many holy men went over from Egypt, who were invariably received with reverence by the inhabitants, particularly nine or ten of great sanctity, between the year 470 and 480, whose memory is still highly respected in the province of Tigré, where as many churches were built and called after their names.

The faith which they received with enthusiasm, they maintained with firmness; for so early as the time of Justin, about the year 525, when it appears that they were absolute masters of the Red Sea, we have a well authenticated account of a formidable army having been

sent over to assist the Christians in Arabia by Caleb Negus, or Elisbaas, which proved successful. It was to this prince that Nonnosus was sent as ambassador by Justin, part of whose account is still extant in Photius, and the Adulitic inscription was also copied at this time by Cosmas.

This, and the succeeding reign of Guebra Maskal, or Hellestheus, who was cotemporary with Justinian, and to whom the latter sent Julianus as ambassador, for the purpose of awing the Persians, and gaining a monopoly of the Indian trade, particularly silk, form the brightest period of the Abyssinian monarchy, as clearly ascertained in history; but I think we may presume, that it was also, powerful at the time of the second Adulitic inscription being erected: to ascertain the date of this, is therefore of the greatest importance. But even computing from the time of the Axum inscription, when Aeizana was stiled King of the Homērites and of the Sabæans, it will give us a space of upwards of two centuries for the duration of the superiority of Abyssinia over Arabia, and consequently of its command of the Red Sea, although the Arabian authors allow the Abyssinians to have absolutely ruled by their viceroys over Arabia Felix for no more than seventy-two years. Soon after Hellestheus, or in the latter part of his reign, their power began to decline in Arabia, owing to the desertion of their own troops, who became independent settlers there, and to the increasing power of the Persians, who were gaining in this part a decided superiority, and who succeeded at last in driving them from the country, though they molested the coast afterwards by frequent invasions.

invasions, and kept up their influence in the Red Sea even to a later period than the time of Mahomet; for we find in Abulfeda, that the King of Abyssinia gave protection to all the refugees who then fled from Arabia, among whom were some of the first families in that country, particularly Gafar, the son of Abu Taleb, in defiance of all the solicitations made to him to give them up. Afterwards, when the Mahommedan dynasty became all-powerful in this quarter of the world, though all their Arabian possessions were taken from them, their commerce and their consequence annihilated, their country invaded, and even their capital itself endangered, yet the Abyssinians remained firm; and alone, of all the nations of the East, successfully continued to defend their faith against the ferocious attacks of the surrounding Mahommedan states. Yet the struggle in which they were engaged was severe indeed; and it is almost certain that they would ultimately, and even shortly, have sunk under it, had not, almost at this last extremity, the Portuguese arrived, after the discovery of the passage round the Cape of Good Hope, to their assistance. This happened in the year of our Lord 1541, when Claudius sat on the throne, who, as well as his father David, to whom he had just succeeded, had been for some years engaged in a defensive war against Mahomet Gragné, King of Adel, one of the most blood-thirsty savages history has recorded. The accession of European troops, as might be expected, soon changed the face of affairs; and after many desperate battles, in which the Portuguese were chiefly engaged under their brave commander Diego De Gama,

who in enterprize, though not in success, almost equalled his brother, the Moors were driven back, their king killed, and their armies nearly annihilated; while all hope of resources from the other coast were cut off by the Portuguese fleet, which then rode triumphantly in the Red Sea.

It has been usual with many to condemn altogether these crusading expeditions; yet, in this instance, the effects resulting from it were in a high degree beneficial to the empire of Abyssina, which was, in fact, completely saved, by the mode of warfare then introduced, and by the progress in civilization which the natives made under the tuition of the Portuguese, and to which alone is to be attributed the superiority which they have to this day retained above all the nations around them. This superiority has, however, been kept up only by a continual struggle, which gradually has tended to weaken their power, and render their situation every day more and more precarious, so as to make it likely that they may not, without assistance, be able much longer to stand out against the superior numbers of the Galla.

Much, however, as we may admire the effects resulting from this expedition of the Portuguese, we cannot but condemn the bigotry with which their priests attempted to force the Roman Catholic religion on the Abyssinians, which succeeded only for a short time, merely from the weakness of one of their kings. For they were not content with infringing upon their ancient rites and ceremonies; with altering their fasts, and denying them a participation in the holy supper; with burning their altars, and consecrating new ones; but they were absurd enough, which

more

more particularly incensed the people, to treat them all as pagans or idolaters; by insisting on their re-baptism and the re-ordination of their priests; thus unnecessarily heaping, as their king complains in one of his letters, baptism on baptism, and priesthood on priesthood. To this their Patriarch added the folly, not to give it a worse term, of daring to excommunicate the legitimate sovereign of the country. Such repeated acts of aggression at length brought on them the merited punishment, and the exhausted patience of the Abyssinians, gave way to a bitter rancour, which burst forth in the destruction of part of the priests; in the expulsion of the rest; and finally, in the exclusion of all strangers from the country. Yet the gratitude still felt for the services which, as soldiers, the Portuguese had rendered them, induced the Abyssinians to treat all, but the priests, with kind and continued attention, which cannot be more strongly shewn, than by an extract from a letter, written by Basilides, when he expelled the fathers from the country.

“Lo, our messengers have faithfully delivered to us many things that you said, and various reasons that you urged, when they declared to you our command that you should return to your own country. First, you say, “we did not come of our own accord, but were sent in consequence of repeated letters written to invite us.” What! do you still pretend ignorance of the numerous causes, though so clearly laid before you in our former letter, for which we have obliged you to migrate to your own country? why seek you that we should again repeat them? Recollect you not the late fierce

“disputes between you and the
 “people of Abyssinia, nay, which
 “have always existed, from the
 “contempt in which they have held
 “your rites, your ceremonies, and
 “your religion; and which have
 “been carried to such a length,
 “that, had not God protected you
 “on high, and the favour of our
 “emperor below, would have prevented your staying, I will not
 “say twenty-two years, but even
 “half a year in the country? It is
 “needless to describe how many
 “men for this cause have been
 “sacrificed, or how many labours
 “and troubles the late emperor
 “suffered in your cause, since all
 “this must be fresh in your memory. But, in truth, the Emperor finding that this change of
 “religion could by no means stand,
 “himself, as he had first introduced,
 “so he again changed it; returning to the fundamental doctrines
 “of his fathers, which is the rock
 “of the Alexandrian faith; and this
 “he confirmed by his public edicts,
 “so that it may not again be altered
 “from generation to generation.
 “What belongs to the faithful account of those brave Portuguese,
 “whom you have wished to recall
 “to our memory, who, in defence
 “of religion, came into Ethiopia
 “in the time of the Emperor Claudius, we perfectly know that they
 “came for a good cause, and that
 “in the very year they entered the
 “country, peace flowed in like a
 “river, and one people no longer
 “rose against the other. For they
 “did not teach the doctrine of persecution, or assemble together
 “for the purpose of destroying the
 “ancient religion handed down by
 “the fathers and Apostles, nor did
 “they force any one to observe
 “other rites than those which were
 “in public use, but rather fought
 “in

“ in the defence of them, to free
“ their country from the hands of
“ a plunderer and a robber, com-
“ manding an army too truly Ma-
“ hommedan. These men are
“ worthy of every praise, and they
“ received their reward from our
“ kings, so that they planted their
“ vines, and tilled their lands in a
“ country, where they had received
“ nothing, not even a foot of land
“ as an inheritance. And whatso-
“ ever they have left, it remains to
“ their children, who to this day
“ live among us, upon the bread
“ granted by us, and bequeathed
“ to them by their fathers ; nor is
“ there any one who can say to
“ them, - What do you here ? or,
“ what business have you in this
“ country ? since all know that
“ they came for the public good.”

From these facts it will appear, that although partial heresies and gradual corruptions may have crept into the Abyssinian church, which was the natural consequence of their peculiar and isolated situation, yet they can justly claim the honour, not only of having resisted the open and formidable attacks of the Mahommedans, but likewise the more insidious attacks of the Romish church ; as also, in its earlier period, of having resisted the Arian schism, and, like the Coptic-Greeks, to whom their church is nearly allied, may still consider themselves as adhering to the faith which they first received. At the present moment, however, the nation, with its religion, is fast verging to ruin ; the Galla and Mussulmaun tribes around are daily becoming more powerful ; and there is reason to fear that, in a short time, the very name of Christ may be lost among them. Some events have lately occurred likely to hasten their fall ; namely, the

death of their late Aboona Marcus, and the failure of their endeavours to procure another from Egypt. By this, the last tie which bound them to the mother country is cut asunder ; divisions among the priests have already ensued ; the consequence of which is, that their most holy rites are likely to become objects of derision, from the slovenly manner in which they are performed, and the sacred character of the priesthood to fall into contempt, from the dubious authority by which the priests are now ordained to its duties. To this may be added, that the little learning they have among them will soon be exhausted, being cut off entirely from the source that supplied it.

It appears to me, that these circumstances call for the serious consideration of all Christians ; for when so much trouble is taken, and so much expense incurred, in endeavouring to convert infidels to the faith, might it not be of equal, or more consequence, to give relief to a nation, already professing generally, the same faith with ourselves, who at so very early a period received the Christian religion, cherished and defended it against its open and secret enemies, and who still maintain it ; not pure indeed, but as their established faith ; and to prove that they are a people not unworthy of our care, let us refer to what the Jesuits have said of them, at a time indeed when they were friends, but which, as Ludolf well observes, they never afterwards contradicted. In a letter from Fremona they write thus :
“ Let it be particularly noted, that
“ although the Abyssinians have
“ fallen into many and great errors
“ concerning the faith, yet, ex-
“ cepting these, it is certain that
“ they still preserve that excellent
“ disposition,

“disposition, and good natural inclination to all virtue and piety, which, from of old, they have possessed; and that even now, according to what the Fathers have seen, much fewer sins are found among them, than in many other Christian countries in Europe, where our holy faith remains as yet uncorrupted.” Again: “They give with much willingness alms to the poor, and treat strangers with hospitality.”

The Patriarch Alphonso Mendez also thus speaks of them, and his authority is of great weight, considering that he retained these opinions after his expulsion from the country: “They are wonderfully affected towards divine matters; and have, from the time of the Apostles, amid the darkness of the Gentiles and Mahommedans, kept alive a spark of faith and of the Christian name. Above all things they are inclined to reading and knowledge. As to what belongs to their disposition, I

“can generally say, that the more noble and cultivated among them do not yield to Europeans, and that those of the lower order far excel our common people; so that there is scarcely one among them who can be called stupid and foolish,” &c.

Poncet, whose fidelity as a traveller must ever rank him high, (p. 242.) bears witness to their piety, attention to the duties of their religion, and their singular moderation with regard to others differing from them in point of doctrine. In addition to these, my own observations tend fully to corroborate what I have here quoted. I believe them in general to be possessed of most excellent inclinations, with great quickness of understanding, and an anxious desire of improvement; and I am fully persuaded that there is no part of the world where European influence might be exerted with more beneficial effects than in Abyssinia.”

ON THE EDUCATION OF COUNTRY GENTLEMEN.

[From Essays on Professional Education, by R. L. Edgeworth, Esq.]

“**M**ORE than one illustrious foreigner has envied the happiness of our English country gentlemen; more than one foreign prince has exclaimed, “The life of an English country gentleman is assuredly the happiest life in the world.”

When we reflect upon the condition of English country gentlemen, we must perceive, that much of their happiness has arisen from their independence of mind; and much from their maintaining what is called *independent fortunes*. It

was long their boast, their honest pride, to despise show and frippery, to do without the luxuries of a city, yet, to live hospitably, and in a manner becoming their station. They paid their debts regularly. They thanked God, that they were independent of all men, and could speak their minds freely on every subject, private or public, without fear or reward. Between this independence of mind and of fortune there is such an intimate connexion, that the one must be destroyed, if the other be sacrificed. If country gentlemen,

gentlemen, from the desire to make figure in the metropolis, or to outshine their neighbours, enter into contests of extravagance and scenes of fashionable dissipation ; if, instead of living upon their own estates and attending to their own affairs, they crowd to water-drinking places, and think only of hazard at Newmarket, the consequences must be, the ruin of their private fortunes, and the forfeiture of their political integrity. Instead of being their country's pride and the bulwark of her freedom, they will become the wretched slaves of a party, or the despicable tools of a court. They will be contemned and ridiculed by their superiors in rank, whom with unequal steps they awkwardly pursue. They will be detested by their neighbours, their inferiors, their tenantry, and dependents, and by the nation whose interests they abandon or betray. For when a country gentleman has lived beyond his income, what is his resource ? not trade, not business of any kind ; to that he cannot stoop ; for this he is not qualified. He has no resource but to sell his vote, if he be in parliament ; or if he be not, to solicit and bargain, perhaps by his country interest, with parliamentary friends, who may provide for his sons or procure for him the means of repairing his shattered fortune. But what can restore his independence of mind !

How much the noblest virtues depend on the smallest can be thoroughly known only to those, who have looked closely into the secret motives of human actions. The heat, the brilliant, and the solid virtues of integrity, patriotism, and generosity, cannot long subsist, unless they be supported and protected by the seemingly insignifi-

cant and homely habits of prudence and economy.

If this were a treatise on political economy, it might be necessary here to define the term luxury : by some writers, it is used to signify every thing beyond the mere necessities of life ; with others, it comprehends chiefly the objects of the fine arts, and with others, whatever implies effeminacy of manners. But it is by no means certain, that a taste for luxury diminishes the martial spirit of a people ; and to restrict men to the necessities of life, would be to destroy commerce, and to reduce them to a state of Spartan simplicity, equally incompatible with modern ideas of happiness and modern systems of defence. The principle of the Lacedæmonian system of defending a country seems to have been, to deprive it of all that could tempt an invader. In modern times, Sparta and the life of a Lacedæmonian would scarcely appear worth fighting for ; and it would be bad policy in these days, even if it were possible, to restrict the pleasures of life to that of bare existence, to reduce the love of our country, embellished by commerce and the arts, to mere habitual attachment to the natal soil. It is not in the Spartan, nor yet in the ascetic sense of the term, that luxury is here used.

Luxury in fact, is a word that must vary in every age, and in every country, with the progress of civilization : it is not a positive but a comparative term ; for what is luxury in one rank of life, is not luxury in another ; and the luxuries of yesterday become the necessities of to-day ; no general or permanent definition therefore can be precise. Sumptuary laws, which have attempted to define luxuries, have always been absurd and incompetent.

competent. On this subject common opinion is the only standard ; and as this varies with circumstances, so must the conduct of individuals. In every rank and situation there is a certain style in living, in houses, equipage, furniture, which is usual to persons of that class. Whoever in any of these things vies with persons of a superior station and passes the bounds of his rank and fortune, may be justly accused of being luxurious and extravagant. Those who consider the wealth of nations as the first object, are right in wishing to encourage this species of luxury, and to speak of it as tending only to the quick transfer of property and division of estates ; but those who consider the happiness of nations as an object far preferable to their wealth, will wish rather to preserve their moral independence, which must be sacrificed in the indulgence of these tastes for extravagance.

In the education of country gentlemen, therefore, early care should be taken to prevent their acquiring tastes, that may render them extravagant. The first means to be used are of a preventive nature. Parents should avoid giving children false notions of the value of things, by praising objects of mere luxury, by anxiety about external appearance, and by deference to wealth and show. They should not teach by example, that ornament is to be preferred to utility : and that people of fashion are superior to other mortals. All who have attended to children know how early they catch notions from those they live with, and how quickly they form deductions from casual expressions of admiration or contempt. By a few well-timed words of praise or blame, parents may

infuse a noble and rational pride into the minds of youth, raise them above that petty emulation in expense which ruins the happiness of families, and prepares the destruction of kingdoms. Magnificent houses and furniture, and parks, and equipages, and great entertainments, and fashionable company, are desired not so much for the pleasure they really afford, as for the distinction which they confer. Men are, we see, as proud of plain coats, as of gold and embroidery, according as the one or the other happens to be the mode ; and in the same manner one person may be proud of paying his debts, and living within his income, while another is vain of bilking duns, and spending twice as much as he is worth. Young people may be taught to consider certain good qualities as greater distinctions than those external marks of wealth, of which the generality are so ambitious. From his childhood, the son of a country gentleman should hear, and see in his own family, that independence of character is respected ; principles of honour, and the first feelings of generosity, should be joined in his young mind with the habits of economy. He should be encouraged to give, but never to waste, his playthings, his clothes, his money, or any thing that can be useful to himself or others. He should be taught a few honest maxims, of which he will feel the value and force when he begins to reason and to act for himself ; he should learn, that a gentleman ought to live within his income, and to pay his debts : that he should scorn to take a bribe, or to be the hanger-on of a court. These are wholesome truths, which, once fixed in a boy's mind, will form a firm foundation for the plain

plain character of a country gentleman. Even before a child can have an accurate idea of what constitutes a good master, a good landlord, or a good magistrate, his ambition may be excited to become what his ancestors have been before him, or what his parents and friends commend and respect. These impressions may be made without formal lessons, by seizing proper opportunities as they occur. If the child hear his father speak to his domestics or tenants, or the country people in the neighbourhood, with kindness; if the boy sees that his father exerts himself to improve their houses, to add to their comforts, to prevent them from disputing, and to do justice among them, he will early acquire some notions of the true duty of a country gentleman: and if he hear his father's dependants and neighbours speak of him with gratitude and respect, he will even in his childhood be touched by these praises, and will probably resolve to imitate his father's conduct when *he grows up to be a man*. Many things occur between the forming and keeping such a resolution; but it is well even to have formed it; such impressions may be weakened by time, or apparently effaced by succeeding events: but it often happens that notions, which seem to have been obliterated, recur when people are placed in circumstances similar to those in which the thoughts were first introduced into the mind. Much has been attributed to hereditary propensities, which arise from the recollection of examples seen in childhood; these recur to the mind at the ages when they can be imitated: hence it has often been observed, that children, who had no resemblance to their parents when they were

young become like them as they grew older.

To strengthen the impressions made by example and conversation, preceptors and parents should select from books illustrations that may amuse while they instruct. The works of Goldsmith, of Day, and many periodical papers of Addison, are well suited to inspire a boy both with the independence of manly character, and the benevolent feelings and amiable manners, which make a country gentleman beloved and respected.

The boy will hear conversations about elections and members of parliament; he may happen to see an election: the time should then be taken to impress on his mind the idea of the duties of a member of parliament, and to inspire his young soul with the generous sentiments of a true Briton. He should, for instance, hear the account of the Lord Treasurer Danby's visit in King Charles the Second's time to the patriot Marvel in his garret; he should hear, or he should read, of the noble firmness with which Marvel rejected the temptations that were presented to him; he refused a thousand pounds laid down before him, though he was at the time so poor, that he was obliged to borrow a guinea of a friend as soon as the Lord Treasurer departed. The boy should hear also of the independent patriot, who was found by Sir Robert Walpole supping upon a cold shoulder of mutton; a circumstance which convinced the minister that he could not succeed in any attempt to corrupt integrity that was supported by unblushing frugality. Anecdotes such as these are not above the capacity of boys of ten or twelve years old, for they require no knowledge of the world to be tasted; and the

enthusiasm that generous conduct excites, is always most felt in early youth. A few such facts related when the heart is warm, may make an indelible impression. The contrast to the sturdy respectable character may be shewn in such lives as that of Sir Richard Steele, who, though he had excellent intentions, was so weak, so imprudent, and so extravagant, as to become utterly contemptible. Once, when he was reproached by Whiston with his political venality, he replied, "I must ride in a coach; but you can walk." This answer contains much in a few words. Anecdotes such as these, told at happy moments, will make a strong impression on the mind of youth: and thus, even when very young, the spirit of independence may be excited among children. All this must be effected by domestic education during the years which boys spend at home, before they are sent to school, and during the vacations, which they pass with their parents. The heirs of opulent gentlemen should not be brought up in their father's house, or near their father's estate, lest they should imbibe undue ideas of their own importance, and grow up with the contracted notions common to persons, who hear only of their own possessions, and see only their own dependants. Young squires are apt to fancy that there is nothing in the universe equal to their father's house, and their own neighbourhood; and that no opinions can be rational or right, but those which they have been accustomed to hear, from half a dozen domestic oracles. For this reason they should be sent to public schools at a distance from their friends and connexions, where, mixing with strangers and equals, they will be

forced to seek distinction by other merits than merely those of bearing a certain name, or being heir to a certain number of acres. Measuring themselves with others, they will learn of what small importance they are; and how very little the world thinks of those things which have perhaps occupied their exclusive attention. These practical moral lessons are some of the most salutary, which a great school teaches; and they are peculiarly useful and necessary to boys who are not intended for any of those professions, where continual competition keeps the self-importance of men in order, and where variety of circumstances must prevent them from contracting habits of dogmatizing obstinacy. The obstinacy of ignorance and of imaginary self-importance used to be one of the common ludicrous characteristics of our English squires; but the Sir Wilful of Congreve, the Western of Fielding, and the Tony Lumpkin of Goldsmith, are not now to be found in the most remote parts of England. The ignorant, hunting, drunken, obstinate, jovial, freedom-loving tyrant is no more to be seen, except in old novels and plays. The ptarmigan, the bustard, the cock of the woods, and the country squire, are nearly extinct. Instead of country squires we have now country gentlemen. The diffusion of knowledge, and the advantages of polite and literary education, have silently and gradually operated this melioration. They must now beware, lest, to avoid the faults and foibles of their predecessors, they should run into the contrary extremes. It is said, that a Yorkshire country gentleman, not many years ago, gave an annuity of £300 for the possession of a statue of Venus, the price of which

which he could not pay. It is true, that the understanding cannot in any class of men be too much enlarged ; but it may be too much refined ; it may be misapplied to subjects of little use to the possessor, in the situation in which he is destined to live ; this must lead to the neglect of substantial duties, consequently to the degradation of the character of the individual. A youth may be warned of this danger, but he should not be discouraged from cultivating a taste for painting, poetry, or for any of the fine arts or liberal sciences ; provided his taste do not lead him into extravagance, and provided he possess in theory, and apply in practice, the knowledge that is peculiarly requisite to a master of a family, a landlord, a magistrate, a grand juror, an elector, and in the most comprehensive sense of the word, a good subject. The range of knowledge requisite to fulfil these duties with propriety is much more extensive than can be conceived by men of contracted views. To be a good landlord and a good magistrate, a man must not only have a desire to serve his tenants and to do justice to all who appeal to him, but he must know how to be just and benevolent ; otherwise he will be, as the proverb says, “ *quanto buon che val niente,*” so good as to be good for nothing. The more conscious he is of right intentions, the more positive and active he will be in maintaining his opinions and enforcing his authority ; and the more obnoxious and dangerous he must consequently be to that portion of the community over which his power and influence extend. An opulent country squire might, for

instance, encourage his tenants to improve their condition, by introducing intricate modes of agriculture, by directing industry into new channels, by bounties to foster infant manufactures, by charitable donations to those who have large families of children, by restraints upon emigration, by regulating markets, by raising or lowering the wages of labour : but a man who attempts any of these things, a man who attempts any one operation in political economy without understanding the principles of that science, runs the hazard of doing evil ; he can do only partial good, and that merely by chance. Persons who have no knowledge on these subjects are apt to mistake the very signs of prosperity in states for symptoms of decay, and are alarmed by alterations, which are incident and necessary to countries in certain circumstances. For instance, the changes in the rate of interest, the putting down monopolies, the lowering the price of provisions, or the disposition of tenantry to emigrate, have all been the subject of loud lamentation with short sighted persons. A landlord, who should act in consequence of his prejudices in these particulars, would injure not only his private interest and that of his tenants, but as far as in him lay, would tend to retard the progress of civilization in his country. These subjects are so intricate, and it is so hazardous to meddle with them, that even if the study of political economy were only to teach country gentlemen to refrain from rash interference, it would be of material service.

ON IDEAL BEAUTY IN PAINTING.

[From Mr. OPIE's Lectures, delivered at the Royal Academy.]

“**T**O know an art thoroughly, we must know its object, which, in regard to painting, is not quite so easy as it appears at first ; for though all agree that its purpose is to imitate *nature*, yet the vast superiority possessed by many works of art over others equally challenging to be considered as true and faithful representations of nature, shows that some limitation and explanation of this very extensive and complicated term is necessary to our forming a correct idea of it's meaning in respect to art ; without which it will be vain to hold it up as a standard or measure of the various merits of the different works in painting.

The gross vulgarity and meanness of the Dutch ; the pert frivolity and bombast of the French ; the Gothic, dry, and tasteless barbarism of the old German, as well as the philosophic grandeur of the Roman school, may all be equally defended on the ground of their being strong and faithful representations of nature of some sort or other. In real objects also, the base and the refined, the dross and the metal, the diamond in its rough pebble state, as well as when polished, set, and presented in its brightest blaze, the *goitre* of the Alps, as well as the most perfect beauty, are all equally nature :—but who ever thought them equally proper subjects for the pencil ?

In taking a general view, and comparing the productions of art, they will be found easily divisible into three distinct classes, formed upon three distinct principles or modes of seeing nature, and indi-

cative of three distinct ages, or stages of refinement, in the progress of painting. First those of which the authors, agreeing with Dryden, that “ God never made his works for man to mend,” and understanding nature as strictly meaning the visible appearance of things (any alteration of which would at least be unnecessary and impertinent, if not profane), have in consequence, confined themselves to the giving, as far as in them lay, an exact copy or transcript of their originals, as they happened to present themselves without choice or selection of any kind as to the manner of their being. Secondly, those in which the artists departing a little from this bigotry in taste, have ventured to reject what they considered as mean and uninteresting in nature and endeavoured to choose the most perfect models, and render them in the best point of view. The third class would consist of the works of those who, advanced another step in theory, have looked upon nature as meaning the general principles of things rather than the things themselves, who have made the imitation of real objects give way to the imitation of an idea of them in their utmost perfection, and by whom we find them represented not as they actually are but as they ought to be.

This last stage of refinement, to which no modern has yet completely arrived, has been called the ideal, the beautiful, or the sublime style of art. It founds its pretensions to superiority on the very superior powers required to excel in it, and on the infinitely greater effect,

effect, both as to pleasure and improvement, which it is calculated to produce on the mind of the spectator; and hence the pure, simple, energetic and consistent principle on which it rests is indubitably to be considered as the true and real interpretation of the term *nature*, always to be kept in view, not only by all who would excel in painting, but by all who wish to attain the highest style in any of the imitative arts.

Many painters and critics, from observing the difficulty of settling the proper meaning of the term *Nature*, have thought fit to substitute *beauty* in its stead, as the immediate object of the great style of art. But beauty being a word to the full as indefinite, if not as complex, as the word *nature*, we shall not be surprized to find that many painters of no mean abilities have been led into very fatal mistakes from erroneous and inadequate conceptions of its meaning: we shall not be surprized at the *namby pamby* style of many of the works of Albano; we can hence account for the *manner* and affectation of Guido, who, understanding the term in too confined a sense, thought he was of course to paint on every occasion, the handsomest woman possible; and taking accordingly, in *his* opinion, the most beautiful antique statue for his model, he constantly repeated in his works the same face, without variation of expression or character, whatever was the subject, situation, or action represented; whether a Venus or a milkmaid, the Assumption of the Virgin, the Death of Cleopatra, or Judith cutting off the head of Holofernes. This principle has also evidently been the great stumbling-block of the whole French school, to which it owes

the larger share of its absurdity and insipidity, its consumptive langour, and its coquetish affectation.

I will not undertake the perilous task of defining the word *beauty*? but I have no hesitation in asserting that when beauty is said to be the proper end of art, it must not be understood as confining the choice to one set of objects, or as breaking down the boundaries and destroying the natural classes, orders, and divisions of things (which cannot be too carefully kept entire and distinct); but as meaning the perfection of each subject in its kind, in regard to form, colour, and all its other associated and consistent attributes. In this qualified, and, I will venture to say, proper acceptation of the word in regard to art, it may be applied to nearly all things most excellent in their different ways. Thus we have various modes of beauty in the statues of the Venus, the Juno, the Niobe, the Antinous, and the Apollo;—and thus we may speak, without exciting a confusion of ideas, of a beautiful peasant, as well as of a beautiful princess, of a beautiful child, or a beautiful old man; of a beautiful cottage, a beautiful church, a beautiful palace, or even of a beautiful ruin.

The discovery or conception of this great and perfect idea of *things*, of nature in its purest and most essential form, unimpaired by disease, unmutated by accident, and unsophisticated by local habits and temporary fashions, and the exemplification of it in practice, by getting above individual imitation, rising from the species of the genus, and uniting, in every subject, all the perfection of which it is capable in its kind, is the ultimate exertion of human genius. Hitherto

therto shalt thou go, and no further — every step in every direction from this pole of truth is alike retrograde—for, to generalize beyond the boundaries of character, to compose figures of no specific age, sex, or destination, with no predominant quality or particular end to be answered in their construction, is to violate propriety, destroy interest, and lose the very essence of beauty in contemptible nothingness and insipidity.

Conceptions of beauty or perfection take place involuntarily in the mind, through the medium of that wonderful and powerful principle, the association of ideas : but they will be very far from distinct or correct, unless we also employ much study of the laws of nature, investigate closely her methods of attaining her purposes, observe accurately her rules of proportion, and how they are varied in every department of character, develop the connexion of mind with matter, trace their reciprocal effects on each other, and learn, in all cases, to distinguish the harmonious, consistent, and energetic, from the absurd, superfluous, and inefficient combinations of parts and principles.

As the most fashionable and approved metaphysicians of the present day seem inclined to deny the existence of general ideas, I shall not contend for the propriety of applying that term to ideas formed on the principles I have been mentioning ; but under whatever denomination they may be classed, it cannot be denied that they are the true and genuine object of the highest style of painting. Poetry, though unlimited in its field of description, and omnipotent as the vehicle of relation and sentiment, is capable of giving but faint

sketches of form, colour and whatsoever else is more immediately addressed to the sight ; and the Drama, however impassioned and interesting, can only exhibit form and motion as they actually exist : but the utmost conceivable perfection of form, of majesty, of character, and of graceful and energetic action, have no physical existence ; they are born, bred, and reside in the human imagination only, never to be drawn from thence but by the hand of the consummate artist, working on the sublimest principles of his art. Here it may be necessary to notice that the term *ideal*, like those of nature and beauty, has probably been the source of very great and grievous errors. Instances have occurred of some, who have even been so absurd as to think colouring, *chiaro scuro*, and all that contributes to illusion in painting, as beneath their attention ; who, because they have heard that nature might be improved upon in some particulars, have fondly imagined that their compositions approached the heroic and poetical in proportion as they receded from nature, and became muddy, tame, and monotonous in the effect ; forgetting that the ideal has reference to the forms, character, choice and congruity only of things, and not at all to the rendering the appearance of them with truth, vivacity, and energy to the eye : in which art is so far from being capable of excelling nature, that, with her best efforts, she must ever remain at an immeasurable distance behind.

How colouring and effect may and ought to be managed, to enliven form and invigorate sentiment and expression, I can readily comprehend, and, I hope, demonstrate ; but wherein these different classes

of excellence are incompatible with each other I could never conceive: nor will the barren coldness of David, the brick-dust of the learned Poussin, nor even the dryness of Raffaele himself, ever lead me to believe that the flesh of heroes is less like flesh than that of other men; or that the surest way to strike the imagination, and interest the feelings, is to fatigue, perplex, and disgust, the organ through which the impression is made on the mind.

Let it therefore be always understood that the end of painting, in its highest style, is twofold: first, the giving effect, illusion, or the true appearance of objects to the eye; and, secondly, the combination of this with the ideal, or the conception of them in their utmost perfection, and under such an arrangement, as is calculated to make the greatest possible impression on the spectator.

With such purposes in view, consisting of such a multiplicity of parts, and requiring such an uncommon assemblage of powers,

mechanical and mental, of hand, of eye, of knowledge, of judgment, of imagination, and of indefatigable perseverance in study and practice, to enable a man to perform any one part with tolerable success, it can be no wonder that the art has not as yet, in modern times at least, reached the desired perfection; nor ought we to be surprized to find even the most celebrated masters materially defective in some one or more of its branches,—those who possessed invention, having been frequently deficient in execution; those who studied colouring, having often neglected drawing; and those who attended to form and character, having been too apt to disregard composition, and the proper management of light and shadow. The whole together, indeed, seems almost too great for the grasp of human powers, unless excited, expanded, and invigorated, by such enthusiastic and continued encouragement as that which exclusively marks the bright æra of Grecian taste."

ON GOTHIC ARCHITECTURE.

[From the Works of the late JAMES BARRY, Esq.]

"**T**HE manner of building called Gothic, is generally believed to have been the invention of the Goths, as the name imports, and to have been brought into Italy by those barbarians, after they had established themselves upon the ruins of the Roman empire. There are others, who believe that this method of building came into Europe from the east. As to the former of those opinions, I am per-

suaded that it would be difficult to produce positive proofs that the northern people had any species of architecture at all before their intercourse with the Romans, or that their habitations were other than holes in the earth, or built of wood, or of mud and chaff, as is still practised in parts of England and Ireland.

The Irish historians say, that the Domliag of St. Kieran, built

in the eighth or ninth century, was the first stone building erected in Ireland. I can easily conceive that architects might have gone into northern countries, and introduced their art and notions of ornament and magnificence, as the Romans did at Nismes, &c. but it contradicts all that we know of the nature of art, to suppose that architecture as an ornamental art, dependent upon designing and sculpture, could possibly grow up of itself in countries where sculpture and the representation of natural objects was not previously studied and practised.

The other opinion of the oriental origin of this kind of architecture, will be also found upon examination groundless and chimerical, and is one of those mistakes which men might easily fall into, who are more learned in history and the revolutions of government, than they are knowing in the arts.

It is well known that architecture, as well as all the other arts, fell greatly into decay at the decline of the Roman empire. George Vasari, in the poem to his lives of the painters, has taken notice of this above two hundred years since: he observes, that day after day they declined, and lost by little and little the perfection of design, even before the arrival of the Goths. He speaks with great feeling, good sense, and knowledge, on this decline of the arts; and he is so just and spirited in the descriptions he has given of the barbarities of Gothic architecture, that I am surprized he did not observe the connexion there was between them, and that it was but the same thing still going on in a state of continued corruption.

The beginnings of the barbarous architecture called Gothic, is trace-

able in those buildings erected in Italy, even before the arts were much declined, and long before the Goths had any footing there. The number of examples there are of this in all the different parts of architecture growing out of one another and increasing, have convinced me that the Gothic architecture is nothing more than the architecture of the old Greeks and Romans in the state of final corruption, to which it had fallen.

The buildings erected between the times of Augustus and Adrian, are as much remarkable for a chaste and manly plainness, as they are for elegance and beauty. The three Grecian orders, employed in the buildings erected in this period, are preserved in great purity; and the Roman or composite order used in the arch of Titus, was ingeniously enough constructed, and happily united with great simplicity the ornaments of the two Greek orders, from whence it was taken. Hitherto there was nothing reproachable; but there is discoverable in the buildings erected after Severus, a too great fondness for ornament, and a desire of novelty, and compounding the parts of architecture with a still greater degree of complexity; and as this increased every day in proportion to the growth of effeminacy and decay of knowledge, their inventions, naturally enough, approached nearer barbarity than perfection. It was about this time that a considerable number of works were erected, in which the capitals and other ornamental pieces of architecture were in so fantastic a manner, with so little of the true forms remaining, that they serve indifferently for all kinds of things, and are with ease converted into candelabras, chimney pieces, and what

what not. Example of this kind of trash may be seen in abundance in the collection of Piranesi, who is well known in the world as an ingenious engraver of ruins and ornaments. He has also published at his leisure hours two books under the title of *Magnificenza di Roma*, &c. in which he has engraved some of those things, and discourses upon them, by way of depreciating the Greeks, and their practice in the arts.

Every one knows that for some time before the arrival of the Goths, the Roman affairs were in the utmost ruin, anarchy, and desolation. Ignorance had altogether supplanted knowledge and taste in all the arts; and as they built but little, the memory of the old principles of architecture were almost quite worn out amongst them; and, were we to make a summary of all the corruptions which had crept into architecture from the time of Alexander Severus, down to the times before the arrival of the Goths, Visigoths, and Longobards; how much it abounded on the one hand by affectation and caprice, and on the other, how much it lost by the decay and annihilation of all other arts, we have no reason to imagine that, when Theodoric and his successors were inclined to erect new palaces and churches, they could be other than what they were, deformed, disproportionate, and ridiculous, with more labour and profusion of ornaments, than propriety, judgment, or science; so that when the Gothic king Theodoric had erected the churches and palaces at Rimini, Ravenna, Padua, Modena, &c. they were necessarily built in this detestable taste, for this simple reason, because there was no other in the

country at that time: and these buildings, as they were rich, ornamented, and extremely unlike any thing that was heathen, became the models of all other Christian churches in Europe; so that this kind of architecture went northwards from Italy, instead of being transplanted from the north into Italy.

That no doubt may remain about this matter, I shall present a few drawings of examples of the different corruptions, as they grew up, one out of the other.

Before the great niche in the pantheon, there are two large columns, and their pilastres, which are remarkable on two accounts; the flutes are more than the diameter of a circle deep, and the fillets have the extra ornaments of half a circle.

There is further under and over the flutes, an ornament, but these columns and their pilastres are visibly the work of a different age, and do not belong to the building.

In the very ancient church of St. Agnesi are also two columns very beautiful in other respects, which have the flutes and the fillets in a manner still more ornamented and fantastic.

This is so exceedingly like those ingredients which form the Gothic column or bundle of columns, that by only swelling the convex parts a little more, and sinking the cavities, it becomes identically the same thing.

In the old church of St. Lorenzo *without the walls*, are examples of the flutes and fillets winding about the shaft in the spiral form; the transition from this to the twisting of the shaft itself was very easy; and I am very certain, from various examples of this to
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be found in St. Giovanni di Latte-ran, and many other places of Rome, that the column preserved in St. Peter's and brought from Jerusalem, never did belong to any temple of the Jews, but must have been wrought either in Greece after Constantine, in Rome, or Jerusalem (if they will have it so) by Christian artists, in the time of the decline of the arts.

The supporting of arches by a single column (and not with a pillar, half column and imposts, as was the ancient practice) we have some examples of in the buildings done about the times of Dioclesian, Constantine, Valentinian, &c. The beautiful ancient church of St. Stephano Rotunda is also defective in this and other particulars; the intercolumniation, or the spaces between the columns, came also to be widened out of all rule.

In the church of the Minerva at Rome, the ground plan of the pillars which sustain the nave is square, with four half columns. The multiplying this makes true Gothic confusion.

The ground plan of the pillars which support the nave of the duomo of Sienna, is also the same identically with this. The half columns are at least double the length they should be, and the capitals Corinthian, deformed a little. Some have the three tier of leaves, others are formed upon the same model of those capitals of trophies, &c. at St. Lorenzo at Rome. The Corinthian capital corrupted, is most visibly traceable in almost all the Gothic capitals. Sometimes they play with, and enlarge the scrolls, so as to give some idea of the remains of the Ionic, and at others they introduce trophies of crosses, Holy lambs, Holy Ghost, &c. In the idea of the forementioned capi-

tals of trophies of the ancients at St. Lorenzo, the base is for the most part attic.

In the second arcade of the second floor of the amphitheatre of Titus, is the same kind of roof as that in the baths of Dioclesian.

The very nature of those arcades in the amphitheatre of Titus, made it necessary to use this kind of arched roof meeting in a point in the centre of four pillars, as the arcades cross one another; the necessity there was for passing from one arcade into the other, and of presenting the eye in all situations with such a portion of the building as to keep up an idea of the whole together, made this manner of arching necessary and proper, and the shortness and solidity of the pillars, which sustain the arches, and the just proportion they bear to the voids between, gives a happy satisfaction to the eye.

The corruption and caricatura of this manner of arching, by only raising the points of a centre a little higher, gives exactly the Gothic roof, and the great number of breaks, introduced by the corruption of the other parts, fills it up with that chaos of divisions and subdivisions, which completes the detestable characteristic of Gothic architecture. A more minute inspection of the roof of the amphitheatre, and of that of Dioclesian, with an attention at the same time, to the Gothic roof of the church of the Minerva, and other Gothic churches, will furnish a number of other proofs. But thus much has been sufficient for me, before I close up this matter, that the Goths have been particularly fond of the Corinthian; and this order is traceable in all their corruptions, as may be seen at St. Giovanni and other places. In a word, suppose
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the Greek or Latin cross, a form given to build a church of, and suppose the different corruptions of columns, arches, roofs, breadths, and heights we have instanced, to take place in it, it produces a Gothic cathedral. The flourishes are supposed to be of their own invention, and added by way of coup de maître. And indeed the number of new buildings erected at Constantinople, must have furnished an ample field for the improvements of all the corruptions of architecture.

But to return to the Gothic arch. The absolute origin and cause why the pointed arch came to be introduced, was the confounding the circular and square forms together, and the ill understanding of some few examples of the ancients, where the necessity of things constrained them to use those forms together. Besides the example cited from the amphitheatre of Titus, there is to be seen in Adrian's villa at Tivoli, a number of the chambers which are square, and as there was a necessity for covering them with a vaulted roof, the four sides met in a common point in the centre of the ceiling, by which means each side of the ceiling gives exactly the same form of a Gothic arch, although they are in reality made up of half circles, crossing one another. Others are arched only from two sides.

There is at the duomo of Virtebo, a range of arches; and there are many examples of such kind of arches at Venice; particularly in the arching made use of in the second floor of the cloisters of St. Mark's palace. St. Mark's palace is a great repository of the corruptions we have been talking of; some columns are too short, others too long, the scrolls of the Corin-

thian capitals made of leaves turned up, turned down, pine apples, and in some, the real scrolls are used both in the centre, and at the angles. In the centre of some of the capitals, where the central scrolls, &c. should come, they have indiscriminately placed lions' heads, masks, half figures, &c. In other Corinthian capitals, they have placed pigeons in the angles where the scrolls should be. In the Corinthian capitals in the church of St. Mark, for the scrolls they have put rams, with their feet coming down upon the first tier of leaves; in others the scrolls remain, and the leaves are thrown backwards as if they were blown by the wind. Some capitals are inclining more to the Ionic, with a large heavy member of a cima recta fantastically ornamented with foliage. The same is to be seen at Bolsena, Sienna, and other places, where the bell of the capital is sometimes covered with a sort of basket-work of true lovers knots, the ends of which form the scrolls at the angles. In the lower order of columns at St. Mark's, the capitals have eight faces, and upon the eight angles are leaves, &c. in the form of scrolls, and in the centre of the eight faces, over a tier of leaves, are placed half figures fiddling, &c. There is the greatest confusion of all in these capitals when they come together, when four three-quarter columns are projected from the angles of a square pillar.

The two immense columns, which stand near the water, in St. Mark's palace, were brought from Constantinople or Greece. The capital and cornice are of white marble, and the column is granite, and in good proportion, although badly wrought in the member.

Of the twisted columns in St. Mark's there are four, two of them of oriental alabaster, in good proportion as to the height and diameter of the shaft, on which the flutes and fillets twist round in a spiral manner. The fillets are half round, and about seven in number, so that this was antecedent to the twisting of a bundle of little columns together, as is seen in the cloisters of St. Giovanni di Lateran at Rome, and other places. As these fillets are so few in number, and the flutes so deep, they have exactly the appearance of a bundle of little columns twisted; and by only lessening the number

of them or cutting through the flutes, it is the exact *Gothic* at St. Giovanni. The workmanship of these columns is bad, and seems of the time of the successors of Constantine.

There is on the outside of St. Mark's church figures cut in porphyry, of the most base and shocking workmanship that can be well imagined; and yet the ancient sandal is figured upon the feet, and is like that sort of half boot used by the Emperors. They have crowns upon their heads, &c. but no Gothic monument in England is worse executed."

ARTS, SCIENCES, AND NATURAL HISTORY.

OBSERVATIONS on the NATURE OF POTASSIUM and AMMONIA.

[From Mr. DAVY's Bakerian Lecture ; read before the Royal Society.]

IN the Bakerian lecture, which I had the honor of reading before the Society, November 19, 1807, I mentioned that in heating potassium strongly in ammonia, I found that there was a considerable increase of volume of the gas, that hydrogen and nitrogen were produced, and that the potassium appeared to be oxidated; but this experiment, as I had not been able to examine the residuum with accuracy, I did not publish. I stated it as an evidence, which I intended to pursue more fully, of the existence of oxygen in ammonia.

In a paper read before the Royal Society last June, which they have done me the honor of printing, I have given an account of various experiments on the amalgam from ammonia, discovered by Messrs. Berzelius and Pontin, and in a note attached to this communication, I ventured to controvert an opinion of M. M. Gay Lussac and Thenard, with respect to the agency of potassium and ammonia, even on their own statement of facts, as detailed in the *Moniteur* for May 27, 1808.

The general obscurity belonging to these refined objects of research, their importance and connexion

with the whole of chemical theory, have induced me, since that time, to apply to them no inconsiderable degree of labour and attention; and the results of my inquiries will, I trust, be found not only to confirm my former conclusions; but likewise to offer some novel views.

In the first of these series of operations on the action of potassium on ammonia, I used retorts of green glass; I, then suspecting oxygen might be derived from the metallic oxides in the green glass, employed retorts of plate glass, and last of all, I fastened the potassium upon trays of platinum, or iron, which were introduced into the glass retorts, furnished with stop cocks. These retorts were exhausted by an excellent air-pump, they were filled with hydrogen, exhausted a second time, and then filled with ammonia from an appropriate mercurial gas-holder. In this way the gas was operated upon in a high degree of purity, which was always ascertained; and all the operations performed out of the contact of mercury, water, or any substances that could interfere with the results.

I at first employed potassium procured

cured by electricity; but I soon substituted for it the metal obtained by the action of ignited iron upon potash, in the happy method discovered by M. M. Gay Lussac and Thenard, finding that it gave the same results, and could be obtained of a uniform quality, and in infinitely larger quantities, and with much less labor and expense.

When ammonia is brought in contact with about twice its weight of potassium at common temperatures, the metal loses its lustre, and becomes white, there is a slight diminution in the volume of the gas; but no other effects are produced. The white crust examined proves to be potash, and the ammonia is found to contain a small quantity of hydrogen, usually not more than equal in volume to the metal. On heating the potassium in the gas, by means of a spirit lamp applied to the bottom of the retort, the color of the crust is seen to change from white to a bright azure, and this gradually passes through shades of bright blue and green into dark olive. The crust and the metal then fuse together; there is a considerable effervescence, and the crust passing off to the sides, suffers the brilliant surface of the potassium to appear. When the potassium is cooled in this state it is again covered with the white crust. By heating a second time it swells considerably, becomes porous, and appears crystallized, and of a beautiful azure tint; the same series of phenomena, as those before described, occur in a continuation of the process, and it is finally entirely converted into the dark olive coloured substance.

In this operation, as has been stated by M. M. Gay Lussac and Thenard, a gas, which gives the

same diminution by detonation with oxygen, as hydrogen is evolved, and ammonia disappears.

The proportion of the ammonia which loses its elastic form, as I have found by numerous trials, varies according as the gas employed contains more or less moisture.

Thus eight grains of potassium, during its conversion into the olive coloured substance, in ammonia saturated with water at 63° Fahrenheit, and under a pressure equal to that of 29.8 inches of mercury, had caused the disappearance of twelve cubical inches and a half of ammonia; but the same quantity of metal acted upon under similar circumstances, except that the ammonia had been deprived of as much moisture as possible by exposure for two days to potash that had been ignited, occasioned a disappearance of sixteen cubical inches of the volatile alkali.

Whatever be the degree of moisture of the gas, the quantities of inflammable gas generated have always appeared to me to be equal for equal qualities of metal. M. M. Gay Lussac and Thenard are said to have stated, that the proportions in their experiment were the same as would have resulted from the action of water upon potassium. In my trials they have been rather less. Thus, in an experiment conducted with every possible attention to accuracy of manipulation, eight grains of potassium generated, by their operation upon water, eight cubical inches and a half of hydrogen gas; and eight grains from the same mass, by their action upon ammonia, produced eight cubical inches and one eighth of inflammable gas. This difference is inconsiderable, yet I have always found it to exist, even in cases where

where the ammonia has been in great excess, and every part of the metal apparently converted into the olive coloured substance.

No other account of the experiments of M. M. Gay Lussac and Thenard has, I believe, as yet been received in this country, except that in the *Moniteur* already referred to; and in this no mention is made of the properties of the substance produced by the action of ammonia on potassium. Having examined them minutely and found them curious, I shall generally describe them.

1. It is crystallized and presents irregular facets, which are extremely dark, and in colour and lustre not unlike the protoxide of iron; it is opaque when examined in large masses, but it is semi-transparent in the films, and appears of a bright brown colour by transmitted light.

2. It is fusible at a heat a little above that of boiling water, and if heated much higher, emits globules of gas.

3. It appears to be considerably heavier than water, for it sinks rapidly in oil of sassafras.

4. It is a non-conductor of electricity.

5. When it is melted in oxygen gas, it burns with great vividness, emitting bright sparks. Oxygen is absorbed, nitrogen is emitted, and potash, which from its great fusibility seems to contain water, is formed.

6. When brought in contact with water, it acts upon it with much energy, produces heat, and often inflammation, and evolves ammonia. When thrown upon water, it disappears with a hissing noise, and globules from it often move in a state of ignition upon the surface of the water. It rapidly

effervesces and deliquesces in air, but can be preserved under naphtha, in which, however, it softens slowly, and seems partially to dissolve. When it is plunged under water filling an inverted jar, by means of a proper tube, it disappears instantly with effervescence, and the non-absorbable elastic fluid liberated is found to be hydrogen gas.

By far the greatest part of the ponderable matter of the ammonia that disappears in the experiment of its action upon potassium, evidently exists in the dark fusible product. On weighing a tray containing six grains of potassium, before and after the process, the volatile alkali employed having been very dry, I found that it had increased more than two grains; the rapidity with which the product acts upon moisture, prevented me from determining the point with great minuteness; but I doubt not, that the weight of the olive colored substance, and of the hydrogen disengaged, precisely equals the weight of the potassium and ammonia consumed.

M. M. Gay Lussac and Thenard are said to have procured from the fusible substance, by the application of a strong heat, two fifths of the quantity of ammonia that had disappeared in the first process, and a quantity of hydrogen and nitrogen, in the proportions in which they exist in ammonia, equal to one fifth more.

My results have been very different, and the reasons will, I trust, be immediately obvious.

When the retort containing the fusible substance is exhausted, filled with hydrogen, and exhausted a second time, and heat gradually applied, the substance soon fuses, effervesces, and, as the heat increases,

creases, gives off a considerable quantity of elastic fluid, and becomes at length, when the temperature approaches nearly to dull redness, a dark grey solid, which, by a continuance of this degree of heat, does not undergo any alteration.

In an experiment, in which eight grains of potassium had absorbed sixteen cubical inches of well dried ammonia in a glass retort, the fusible substance gave of twelve cubical inches and a half of gas, by being heated nearly to redness, and this gas analysed, was found to consist of three quarters of a cubical inch of ammonia, and the remainder of elastic fluids, which, when mixed with oxygene gas in the proportion of $6\frac{1}{2}$ to 6, and acted upon by the electric spark, diminished to $5\frac{1}{2}$. The temperature of the atmosphere, in this process, was 57° Fahrenheit, and the pressure equalled that of 30.1 inches of mercury.

In a similar experiment, in which the platina-tray containing the fusible substance was heated in a polished iron tube, filled with hydrogen gas, and connected with a pneumatic apparatus containing very dry mercury, the quantity of elastic fluid given off, all the corrections being made, equalled thirteen cubical inches and three quarters, and of these a cubical inch was ammonia; and the residual gas, and the gas introduced into the tube being accounted for, it appeared that the elastic fluid generated, destructible by detonation with oxygene, was to be indestructible elastic fluid, as 2.5 to 1.

In this process, the heat applied approached to the dull red heat. The mercury in the thermometer, stood at 62° Fahrenheit, and that in the barometer at 30.3 inches.

In various experiments on different quantities of the fusible substance, in some of which the heat was applied to the tray in the green glass retort, and in others, after it had been introduced into the iron tube, and in which the temperature was sometimes raised slowly and sometimes quickly, the comparative results were so near these that I have detailed, as to render any statement of them superfluous.

A little more ammonia, and rather a larger proportion of inflammable gas, were in all instances evolved when the iron tube was used, which I am inclined to attribute to the following circumstances. When the tray was brought through the atmosphere to be introduced into the iron tube, the fusible substance absorbed a small quantity of moisture from the air which is connected with the production of ammonia. And in the process of heating in the retort, the green glass was blackened, and I found that it contained a very small quantity of the oxides of lead and iron, which must have caused the disappearance of the small quantity of hydrogen.

M. M. Gay Lussac and Thenard, it appears from the statement, had brought the fusible substance in contact with mercury, which must have given to it some moisture; and whenever this is the case, it furnishes by heat variable quantities of ammonia. In one instance, in which I heated the fusible substance from nine grains of potassium, in a retort that had been filled with mercury in its common state of dryness, I obtained seven cubical inches of ammonia as the first product; and in another experiment which had been made with eight grains, and in which moisture was purposely introduced,

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I obtained nearly nine cubical inches of ammonia, and only four of the mixed gases.

I am inclined to believe, that if moisture could be introduced only in the proper proportion, the quantity of ammonia generated, would be exactly equal to that which disappeared in the first process.

This idea is confirmed by the trials which I have made, by heating the fusible substance with potash, containing its water of crystallization, and muriate of lime partially dried.

In both these cases, ammonia was generated with great rapidity, and no other gas, but a minute quantity of inflammable gas, evolved, which was condensed by detonation with oxygene with the same phenomena as pure hydrogene.

In one instance, in which thirteen cubical inches of ammonia had disappeared, I obtained nearly eleven and three quarters by the agency of the water of the potash; the quantity of inflammable gas generated, was less than four tenths of a cubical inch.

In another, in which fourteen cubical inches had been absorbed, I procured by the operation of the moisture of muriate of lime, nearly eleven cubical inches of volatile alkali, and half a cubical inch of inflammable gas; and the differences, there is every reason to believe, were owing to an excess of water in the salts, by which some of the gas was absorbed.

Whenever, in experiments on the fusible substance, it has been procured from ammonia saturated with moisture, I have always found that more ammonia is generated from it by mere heat; and the general tenour of the experiments incline me to believe, that the small quantity, produced in experiments

performed in vacuo, is owing to the small quantity of moisture furnished by the hydrogene gas introduced, and that the fusible substance, heated out of the presence of moisture, is incapable of producing volatile alkali.

MM. Gay Lussac, and Thenard, it is stated, after having obtained three fifths of the ammonia or its elements that had disappeared in their experiment, by heating the product; procured the remaining two fifths, by adding water to the residuum, which after this operation was found to be potash. No notice is taken of the properties of this residuum, which as the details seem to relate to a single experiment, probably was not examined; nor as moisture was present at the beginning of their operations could any accurate knowledge of its nature have been gained.

I have made the residuum of the fusible substance after it has been exposed to a dull red heat, out of the contact of moisture, an object of particular study, and I shall detail its general properties.

It was examined under naphtha, as it is instantly destroyed by the contact of air.

1. Its colour is black, and its lustre not much inferior to that of plumbago.

2. It is opaque even in the thinnest films.

3. It is very brittle, and affords a deep gray powder.

4. It is a conductor of electricity.

5. It does not fuse at a low red heat, and when raised to this temperature, in contact with plate glass, it blackens the glass, and a grayish sublimate rises from it, which likewise blackens the glass.

6. When exposed to air at common temperatures, it usually takes fire

fire immediately, and burns with a deep red light.

7. When it is acted upon by water, it heats, effervesces most violently, and evolves volatile alkali, leaving behind nothing but potash. When the process is conducted under water, a little inflammable gas is found to be generated. A residuum of eight grains giving in all cases about $\frac{200}{200}$ of a cubical inch.

8. It has no action upon quicksilver.

9. It combines with sulphur and phosphorus by heat, without any vividness of effect, and the compounds are highly inflammable, and emit ammonia, and the one phosphuretted and the other sulphuretted hydrogen gas, by the action of water.

As an inflammable gas alone, having the obvious properties of hydrogen is given off during the action of potassium upon ammonia, and as nothing but gases apparently the same as hydrogen and nitrogen, nearly in the proportions in which they exist in volatile alkali, are evolved during the exposure of the compound to the degree of heat which I have specified: and as the residual substance produces ammonia with a little hydrogen by the action of water, it occurred to me that, on the principles of the antiphlogistic theory, it ought to be a compound of potassium, a little oxygen and nitrogen, or a combination of a suboxide of potassium and nitrogen; for the hydrogen disengaged in the operations of which it was the result, nearly equalled the whole quantity contained in the ammonia employed; and it was easy to explain the fact of the reproduction of the ammonia by water, on the supposition, that by combination with one portion of the oxygen of the water, the

oxide of potassium became potash, and by combination with another portion and its hydrogen, the nitrogen was converted into volatile alkali.

With a view to ascertain this point, I made several experiments on various residuums, procured in the way that I have just stated, from the action of equal quantities of potassium on dry ammonia in platina trays, each portion of metal equalling six grains.

In the first trials, I endeavoured to ascertain the quantity of ammonia generated by the action of water upon a residuum, by heating it with muriate of lime or potash partially deprived of moisture; and after several trials, many of which failed, I succeeded in obtaining four cubical inches and a half of ammonia. In three other cases, where there was reason to suspect a small excess of water, the quantities of ammonia were three cubical inches and a half, three and eight tenths, and four and two tenths.

These experiments were performed in the iron tube used for the former process; the tray was not withdrawn; but the salt introduced in powder, and the apparatus exhausted as before, then filled with hydrogen, and then gently heated in a small portable forge.

Having ascertained what quantity of ammonia was given off from the residuum, I endeavoured to discover what quantity of nitrogen it produced in combustion, and what quantity of oxygen it absorbed. The methods that I employed were by introducing the trays into vessels filled with oxygen gas over mercury. The product often inflamed spontaneously, and could always be made to burn by a slight degree of heat.

In the trial that I regard as the
most

most accurate, two cubical inches and a half of oxygene were absorbed, and only a cubical inch and one tenth of nitrogene evolved.

Surprised at the smallness of the quantity of the nitrogene, I sought for ammonia in the products of these operations; but various trials convinced me that none was formed. I examined the solid substances produced, except nitrous acid; but the matter proved to be dry potash, apparently pure, and not affording the slightest traces of acid.

The quantity of nitrogene existing in the ammonia, which this residuum would have produced by the action of *water*, supposing the volatile alkali decomposed by electricity, would have equalled at least two cubical inches and a quarter.

I heated the same proportions of residuum with the red oxide of mercury, and the red oxide of lead in vacuo, expecting that when oxygene was supplied in a gradual way, the result might be different from that of combustion; but in neither of these cases did the quantity of nitrogene exceed a cubical inch and a half.

But on what could this loss of nitrogene depend; had it entered into any unknown form with oxygene, or did it not really exist in the residuum in the same quantity, as in the *ammonia* produced from it?

I hoped that an experiment of exposing the residuum to intense heat might enlighten the inquiry. I distilled one of the portions which had been covered with naphtha, in a tube of wrought platina made for the purpose. The tube had been exhausted and filled with hydrogen, and exhausted again, and was then connected with a pneu-

matic mercurial apparatus. Heat was at first, slowly applied till the naphtha had been driven over. It was then raised rapidly by an excellent forge. When the tube became cherry red, gas was developed; it continued to be generated for some minutes. When the tube had received the most intense heat that could be applied, the operation was stopped. The quantity of gas collected, making the proper corrections and reductions, would have been three cubical inches and a half at the mean temperature and pressure. Twelve measures of it were mixed with six of oxygene gas, the electrical spark was passed through the mixture; a strong inflammation took place, the diminution was to three measures and a half, and the residuum contained oxygene. This experiment was repeated upon different quantities with the same comparative results.

In examining the platina tube, which had a screw adapted to it at the lower extremity, by means of which it could be opened; the lower part was found to contain potash, which had all the properties of the pure alkali, and in the upper part there was a quantity of potassium. Water poured into the tube, produced a violent heat and inflammation; but no smell of ammonia.

This result was so unexpected and so extraordinary, that I at first supposed there was some source of error. I had calculated upon procuring nitrogene as the only aeriform product; I obtained an elastic fluid which gave much more diminution by detonation with oxygene, than that produced from ammonia by electricity.

I now made the experiment by heating the entire fusible substance,

from six grains of potassium which had absorbed twelve cubical inches of ammonia, in the iron tube, in the manner before described. The heat was gradually raised to whiteness, and the gas collected in two portions. The whole quantity generated, making the usual corrections for temperature and pressure, and the portion of hydrogen originally in the tube, and the residuum, would have been fourteen cubical inches and a half at the mean degree of the barometer and thermometer. Of these, nearly a cubical inch was ammonia and the remainder a gas, of which the portion destructible by detonation with oxygen, was to the indestructible portion, as 2.7 to 1.

The lower part of the tube, where the heat had been intense, was found surrounded with potash in a vitreous form; the upper part contained a considerable quantity of potassium.

In another similar experiment, made expressly for the purposes of ascertaining the quantity of potassium recovered, the same elastic products were evolved. The tube was suffered to cool, the stop-cock being open in contact with mercury it was filled with mercury, and the mercury displaced by water; when two cubical inches and three quarters of hydrogen gas was generated, which proved that at least two grains and a half of potassium had been revived.

Now, if a calculation be made upon the products in these operations, considering them as nitrogen and hydrogen, and taking the common standard of temperature and pressure, it will be found, that by the decomposition of 11 cubical inches of ammonia equal to 2.05 grains, there is generated 3.6 cubical inches of nitrogen equal to

1.06 grains, and 9.9 cubical inches of hydrogen, which added to that disengaged in the first operation equal to about 6.1 cubical inches, are together equal to 382 grains; and the oxygen added to 3.5 grains of potassium would be .6 grains and the whole amount is 2.04 grains; and $2.05 - 2.04 = .01$. But the same quantity of ammonia, decomposed by electricity, would have given 5.5 cubical inches of nitrogen equal to 1.6 grains, and only 14 cubical inches of hydrogen equal to .33, and allowing the separation of oxygen in this process in water, it cannot be estimated at more than .11 or .12.

So that if the analysis of ammonia by electricity at all approaches towards accuracy; in the process just described, there is a considerable loss of nitrogen, and a production of oxygen and inflammable gas.

And in the action of water upon the residuum, in the experiment, page 52, there is an apparent generation of nitrogen.

How can these extraordinary results be explained?

The decomposition and composition of nitrogen seem proved, allowing the correctness of the data; and one of its elements appears to be oxygen; but what is its other elementary matter?

Is the gas that appears to possess the properties of hydrogen, a new species of inflammable aeriform substance?

Or has nitrogen a metallic basis which alloys with the iron of platina?

Or is water alike the *ponderable* matter of nitrogen, hydrogen and oxygen?

Or is nitrogen a compound of hydrogen with a larger proportion of oxygen than exists in water?

These important questions, the

Two first of which seem the least likely to be answered in the affirmative, from the correspondence between the weight of the ammonia decomposed, and the products, supposing them to be known substances, I shall use every effort to solve by new labours, and I hope soon to be able to communicate the results of further experiments on the subject to the Society.

As the inquiry now stands, it is however sufficiently demonstrative, that the opinion which I had ventured to form respecting the decomposition of ammonia in this experiment is correct; and that MM. Gay Lussac's and Thenard's idea of the decomposition of the potassium, and their theory of its being compounded of hydrogen and potash, are unfounded.

For a considerable part of the potassium is recovered unaltered, and in the entire decomposition of the fusible substance, there is only a small excess of hydrogen above that existing in the ammonia acted upon.

The mere phenomena of the process likewise, if minutely examined, prove the same thing.

After the first slight efferve-

scence, owing to the water absorbed by the potash formed upon the potassium during its exposure to the air, the operation proceeds with the greatest tranquillity. No elastic fluid is given off from the potassium; it often appears covered with the olive coloured substance, and if it were evolving hydrogen, this must pass through the fluid; but even to the end of the operation, no such appearance occurs.

The crystallized and spongy substance, formed in the first part of the process, I am inclined to consider as a combination of ammonium and potassium, for it emits a smell of ammonia when exposed to air, and is considerably lighter than potassium.

I at first thought that a solid compound of hydrogen and potassium might be generated in the first part of this operation: but experiments on the immediate action of potassium and hydrogen did not favour this opinion. Potassium, as I ventured to conclude in the Bakerian lecture for 1807, is very soluble in hydrogen; but, under common circumstances, hydrogen does not seem to be absorbable by potassium."

ON THE ORIGIN AND FORMATION OF ROOTS.

[In a Letter from T. A. KNIGHT Esq. F. R. S. inserted in the Philosophical Transactions.]

"I IN a former communication I have given an account of some experiments, which induced me to conclude that the buds of trees invariably spring from their alburnum, to which they are always connected by central vessels of greater or less length; and in the

course of much subsequent experience, I have not found any reason to change the opinion that I have there given. The object of the present communication is to shew, that the roots of trees are always generated by the vessels which pass from the cotyledons of the seed,

seed, and from the leaves, through the leaf-stalks and the bark, and that they never, under any circumstances, spring immediately from the alburnum.

The organ, which naturalists have called the radicle in the seed, is generally supposed to be analogous to the root of the plant, and to become a perfect root during germination; and I do not know that this opinion has ever been controverted, though I believe that, when closely investigated, it will prove to be founded in error.

A root, in all cases with which I am acquainted, elongates only by new parts which are successively added to its apex or point, and never, like the stem or branch, by the extension of parts previously organized; and I have endeavoured to shew, in a former memoir, that owing to this difference in the mode of the growth of the root and lengthened plumule of germinating seeds, the one must ever be obedient in gravitation, and point towards the centre of the earth, whilst the other must take the opposite direction. But the radicle of germinating seeds elongates by the extension of parts previously organized, and in a great number of cases, which must be familiar to every person's observation, raises the cotyledons out of the mould in which the seed is placed to vegetate. The mode of growth of the radicle is therefore similar to that of the substance which occupies the spaces between the buds near the point of the succulent annual shoot, and totally different from that of the proper root of the plant, which I conceive to come first into existence during the germination of the seed, and to spring from the point of what is called the radicle. At this period, neither the radicle

nor cotyledons contain any alburnum; and therefore the first root cannot originate from that substance; but the cortical vessels are then filled with sap, and apparently in full action, and through these the sap appears to descend which gives existence to the true root.

When first emitted, the root consists only of a cellular substance, similar to that of the bark of other parts of the future tree, and within this the cortical vessels are subsequently generated in a circle, inclosing within it a small portion of the cellular substance, which forms the pith or medulla of the root. The cortical vessels soon enter on their office of generating alburnous matter; and a transverse section of the root then shews the alburnum arranged in the form of wedges round the medulla, as it is subsequently deposited on the central vessels of the succulent annual shoot, and on the surface of the alburnum of the stems and branches of older trees.

If a leaf-stalk be deeply wounded, a cellular substance, similar to that of the bark and young root is protruded from the upper lip of the wound, but never from the lower; and the leaf stalks of many plants possess the power of emitting roots, which power cannot have resided in alburnum, for the leaf-stalk does not contain any; but vessels, similar to those of the bark and radicle, abound in it, and apparently convey the returning sap; and from these vessels, or perhaps more properly from the fluid they convey, the roots emitted by the leaf-stalk derive their existence.

If a portion of the bark of a vine, or other tree, which readily emits roots, be taken off in a circle extending round its stem, so as to intercept entirely the passage of
any

any fluid through the bark; and any body which contains much moisture be applied, numerous roots will soon be emitted into it immediately above the decorticated space, but never immediately beneath it: and when the alburnum in the decorticated spaces has become lifeless to a considerable depth, buds are usually protruded beneath, but never immediately above it, apparently owing to the obstruction of the ascending sap. The roots, which are emitted in the preceding case, do not appear in any degree to differ from those which descend from the radicles of generating seeds, and both apparently derive their matter from the fluid which descends through the cortical vessels.

There are several varieties of the apple tree, the trunks and branches of which are almost covered with rough excrescences, formed by congeries of points which would have become roots under favourable circumstances; and such varieties are always very readily propagated by cuttings. Having thus obtained a considerable number of plants of one of these varieties, the excrescences began to form upon their stems when two years old, and mould being then applied to them in the spring, numerous roots were emitted into it early in the summer. The mould was at the same time raised round, and applied to, the stems of other trees of the same age and variety, and in every respect similar, except that the tops of the latter were cut off a short distance above the lowest excrescence, so that there were no buds or leaves from which sap could descend to generate or feed new roots; and under these circumstances no roots, but numerous buds were emitted, and these buds

all sprang from the spaces and points, which under different circumstances had afforded roots. The tops of the trees last mentioned, having been divided into pieces of ten inches long, were planted as cuttings, and roots were by these emitted from the lowest excrescences beneath the soil, and buds from the uppermost of those above it.

I had anticipated the result of each of the preceding experiments; not that I supposed, or now suppose, that roots can be changed into buds, or buds into roots; but I had before proved that the organization of the alburnum is better calculated to carry the sap it contains, from the root upwards, than in any other direction, and I concluded that the sap when arrived at the top of the cutting through the alburnum would be there employed, as I had observed in many similar cases, in generating buds, and that these buds would be protruded where the bark was young and thin, and consequently afforded little resistance. I had also proved the bark to be better calculated to carry the sap towards the roots than in the opposite direction, and I thence inferred that as soon as any buds, emitted by the cuttings, afforded leaves, the sap would be conveyed from these to the lower extremity of the cuttings by the cortical vessels, and be there employed in the formation of roots.

Both the alburnum and bark of trees evidently contain their true sap; but whether the fluid which ascends in such cases as the preceding through the alburnum to generate buds, be essentially different from that which descends down the bark to generate roots, it is perhaps impossible to decide. As nature, however, appears in the vegetable

vegetable world to operate by the simplest means ; and as the vegetable sap, like the animal blood, is probably filled with particles which are endowed with life, were I to offer a conjecture, I am much more disposed to believe that the same fluid, even by merely acquiring different motions, may generate different organs, than that two distinct fluids are employed to form the root, and the bud and leaf.

When alburnum is formed in the root, the organ possesses, in common with the stem and branches, the power of producing buds, and of emitting fibrous roots, and when it is detached from the tree, the buds always spring near its upper end, and the roots near the opposite extremity, as in the cuttings above mentioned. The alburnum of the root is also similar to that of other parts of the tree, except that it is more porous, probably owing to the presence of abundant moisture during the period in which it is deposited. And possibly the same cause may retain the wood of the root permanently in the state of alburnum ; for I have shewn, in a former memoir, that if the mould be taken away, so that the parts of the larger roots, which adjoin the trunk, be exposed to the air, such parts are subsequently found to contain much heart wood.

I would wish the preceding observations to be considered as extending to trees only, and exclusive of the palm tribe ; but I believe they are nevertheless generally applicable to perennial herbaceous plants, and that the buds and fibrous roots of these originate from substances which correspond with the alburnum and bark of trees. It is obvious, that the roots which bulbs emit in the spring, are generated by the sap which descends

from the bulb, when that retains its natural position ; and such tuberous rooted plants as the potatoe, offer rather a seeming than a real obstacle to the hypothesis I am endeavouring to establish. The buds of these are generally formed beneath the soil ; but I have shewn, in a former memoir, that the buds on every part of the stem may be made to generate tubers, which are similar to those usually formed beneath the soil ; and I have subsequently seen, in many instances, such emitted by a re-produced bud, without the calix of a blossom, which had failed to produce fruit ; but I have never, under any circumstances, been able to obtain tubers from the fibrous roots of the plant.

The tube therefore appears to differ little from a branch, which has dilated instead of extending itself, except that it becomes capable of retaining life during a longer period ; and when I have laboured through a whole summer to counteract the natural habits of the plant ; a profusion of blossoms has in many instances sprung from the buds of a tuber.

The runners also, which, according to the natural habit of the plant, give existence to the tubers beneath the soil, are very similar in organization to the stem of the plant, and readily emit leaves and become converted into perfect stems, in a few days, if the current of ascending sap be diverted into them ; and the mode in which the tuber is formed above, and beneath the soil, is precisely the same. And when the sap, which has been deposited at rest during the autumn and winter, is again called into action to feed the buds, which elongate into parts of the stems of the future plants in the spring, fibrous

fibrous roots are emitted from the bases of these stems, whilst buds are generated at the opposite extremities, as in the cases I have mentioned respecting trees:

Many naturalists have supposed the fibrous roots of all plants to be of annual duration only; and those of bulbous and tuberous rooted plants certainly are so; as in these nature has provided a distinct reservoir for the sap which is to form the first leaves and fibrous roots of the succeeding season; but the organization of trees is very different, and the alburnum and bark of the roots and stems of these are the reservoirs of their sap during the winter. When, however, the fibrous roots of trees are crowded together in a garden-pot, they are often found lifeless

in the succeeding spring; but I have not observed the same mortality to occur, in any degree, in the roots of trees when growing, under favourable circumstances, in their natural situation!

I am prepared to offer some observations on the causes which direct the roots of plants in search of proper nutriment, and which occasion the root of the same plant to assume different forms under different circumstances; but I propose to make those observations the subject of a future communication.

I am, my dear Sir,

with great respect,

Your much obliged, &c.

T. A. KNIGHT."

Elton, Dec. 22, 1808.

ON AMMONIACAL MANURES.

[From Mr. Cox's Evidence before the House of Commons, on the Subject of Gas Lights.]

"**T**HERE are many uses in the arts and manufactures to which the application of the ammonia or volatile alkali is well known, and which are already in part enumerated. But when the demand for these purposes is supplied, and, on the probable great extent of the production of your ammonia, should a surplus quantity remain, I have reason to think, that in some very considerable departments of agriculture that surplus, however great, will find a ready and adequate market. A judicious application of ammonia to land before it be sown with turnips (but if afterwards, on no account after the plants are up), is likely to produce the most bene-

ficial results. What justifies me in this conclusion, is the simple consideration, that all the powerful and concentrated manures of high price, and in great request, are just so in the degree in which I have found them by analysis to contain either ammonia or the elements that compose it. Soot, well known to be in small quantities a powerful encourager of vegetation, contains much carbonate of ammonia, combined with some of the carbonaceous parts, rendering them extractive and soluble in water, forming a brown pungent liquid. Pigeon dung is a dressing for turnip land in great request in the North, where many hundred quarters are annually sold at 121s. the quarter,

quarter, though a very small proportion of the demand is supplied. I have found, by experiment, that this material is richly impregnated with carbonate of ammonia as well as with the well known element of ammonia, azote, which, in the natural decomposition of the manure by putrefaction, when committed to the earth, will be produced. Rape dust is that particular part of the seed (left after the oil is pressed out) which is intended by nature to corrupt, and become the early cause or stimulus of the growth of the embryo germ, and therefore contains the same element, and which we can readily, by a chemical process, exhibit in the ammonia which rape dust may be made to yield. It is hardly necessary to mention urine, &c., from which ammonia is obtained in great quantity, or the dung of all animals, which contains the same principle. It was from the dung of the animals which fed on the fertile plains of Egypt that all the sal-ammoniac known in commerce was for many centuries obtained. From that country, the site of the temple of Jupiter Ammon, its name is derived. Soon after sal ammoniac became an article of European manufacture, it was discovered that the bones and horns of animals yielded its peculiar salt, that is to say, the ammoniacal principle, in much greater quantity than their dung, and those parts were alone used to the exclusion of these: hence the name spirit of hartshorn, given to the volatile alkali used in medicine. It has been of late years discovered, that the scrapings, shavings, and chips of the horns used in manufactures (particularly of the knife handles at Sheffield) are the most powerful and the best of all land

dressings known; and it is from these very materials also that the greatest quantity of ammonia is to be obtained, wool, silk, and hair excepted, and these are again in great use in agriculture, when collected and sold as old woollen rags. Bones of all kinds, not excepting human bones, are sent by sea in great quantity from this metropolis into the North; many hundred tons of these are ground, or rather broken small, in mills contrived on purpose, as the quantity necessary for an acre of land is small in comparison of other materials. The convenience of easy carriage is the cause of the most distant lands being brought into the richest cultivation. It would not be proper, on this occasion, to enter into a theoretical disquisition on the nourishment of vegetables, whether they derive their food wholly, or only in small part, from the earth by their roots, or from the atmosphere by their leaves and green parts; but it appears clear to me, that that principle which the farmers term warmth and force, is constantly accompanied by the chemic element mentioned. This stimulus of encouragement and force is of more consequence to the growth and eventual vigour of annuals than of perennials, and particularly at the early periods immediately succeeding the expenditure of this sure principle which nature has provided in the seed. The putrefactive fermentation always generates ammonia; the earth imbibes the different miasmata, and holds them in store for the use of plants; to these they impart health, strength, and, as may be said, appetite.

A great difference is observed by farmers in the qualities of the manure of cattle, when fed on oil cake

cake or on hay ; it is supposed to be of four times the value in the first case. The beneficial effects of sometimes mixing lime with arable soil is easily explained in this way. The ammonia is always to be recognized by its peculiar smell. As soon as newly slacked lime is mixed up with the mould of a good soil, but which is beginning to show signs of impoverishment, in this case, the ammonia, which had formed a chemic combination with

the fixed acids of the manure (formerly ploughed in and fermented) is set at liberty. These are the phosphoric and vitriolic acids, which, as is well known, will leave ammonia to combine with lime. I have therefore no hesitation in declaring, as matter of opinion, that the production of ammonia, in great quantity, and its judicious application to agricultural purposes, are processes of very great importance to the landed interest."

ON FOSSIL ALCYONIA.

[From Mr. Parkinson's Organic Remains of a former World.]

"WE now arrive at the examination of that class of bodies, of which it was remarked, in the former volume, that although they were decidedly animal substances of marine origin, yet, from the resemblance which they bore to terrestrial fruits, their animal origin had been doubted, and they had been considered as petrified oranges, figs, funguses, nutmegs, &c.

There is no substance which has attracted our attention, during the prosecution of these inquiries, which can yield so many subjects for investigation as these bodies. For whether we consider the peculiar forms with which they are endowed, the original modes of their existence, or the extraordinary changes which they have undergone, a variety of subjects of inquiry, of the most curious nature, will necessarily arise.

That many terrestrial fruits and seed-vessels, containing the ligneous matter, have been found in a petrified state, has been already shewn : of these, of course, it is

not intended here to speak. But substances have been repeatedly met with, the general appearances of which have so much accorded with those of some terrestrial fruits, as to have led several learned and ingenious men to place them among these substances. Thus Volkmann was deceived, and figured and described one of these bodies as *nux moschata fructu rotundo*, Casp. Bauhin. Scheuchzer, on the authority of Volkmann, adopted the same figure and description. Nor will this error be considered as without excuse, when the great resemblance of many of these substances to terrestrial fruits is shewn. Indeed, I must suspect, that, after all the circumstances have been examined, some persons will be found who will not be readily disposed to consider substances, bearing such appearances, as subjects of the animal kingdom. The propriety however of doing this will perhaps appear, when other bodies will be shown passing, through almost insensible gradations, from these bodies, which so closely approximate,

proximate, in their general appearances, to the subjects of the vegetable kingdom, up to others, whose characters are sufficiently marked, to leave no doubt whatever in the mind as to their animal origin.

No one I believe has been more industrious, or more successful in their inquiries, respecting these bodies than M. Guettard, as appears by his very ingenious Essay, *Sur quelques Corps Fossiles peu connus*, in the Memoirs of the Academy of Sciences at Paris for the year 1757. M. Guettard observes, that at Verest, near Tours and Saumur, and at Montrichard, in Touraine, there are found, at some depth in the earth, numerous bodies, which from their very close resemblance, in figure, to figs, pears, oranges, and other fruits, are there considered as fruits, which, having fallen from their trees, have been buried in the earth, where they have undergone the process of petrification.

These bodies, it appears, not only differ very much from each other, in their forms, but also in their structure: and in Mons. Guettard's judgment are divisible into two kinds; those which possess somewhat of a globular form, and those which are conical or funnel-formed.

The former, he observes, may be divided into the body or globular part, and the pedicle or elongated part. In the centre of the superior part of the body is a circular opening, which, in some of the specimens, is closed by extraneous matter, derived from the matrix in which they lie. This opening, which is larger in its upper part than it is downwards, is continued almost to the pedicle, and in some specimens appear even to penetrate it. This is however very difficultly ascertained, since the opening is in general loaded with extraneous

matter. From the circumference of this opening lines may be traced, which not only pass over the whole of the spherical part, and inosculating, are continued to the elongated part, where they form striæ more or less plain; but they are also found to penetrate into the substance, both of the body and of the pedicle. These bodies have, in general, but one of these openings, but some have more; and Mons. Guettard found one with three distinct openings. In this specimen, the lines or striæ just mentioned were seen to collect around the circumference of each of the openings, and after inoculating, to pass into the pedicle, in nearly the same manner as in the others.

A great disproportion, it appears, is frequently observable between the size of the globular part of these bodies, and their pedicle; sometimes the pedicle appearing very large, and sometimes very small in proportion to the body: this difference is however frequently the consequence of the pedicle having been broken off; a circumstance which indeed so often occurs, that a perfect specimen is very rarely to be met with: numerous fragments of the pedicles being dispersed about in the places where these bodies are found. The pedicles are in general of a conical form, and not unfrequently flattened.

By grinding the globular part as well as the pedicle on a stone, he discovered that their texture appeared to be similar, and that by the frequent ramifications of the fibres of which their substance was composed, a net work was formed, not much unlike the paranchyma of vegetables. We therefore perceive that a loose resemblance, sufficient to excuse the vulgar opinion of their origin, is observable between these bodies

and the terrestrial fruits. These bodies, like fruits, appear to have been formed chiefly of a parenchymatous substance; their pedicle seems to answer to the stalk; whilst the opening on their superior part agrees with what is termed the eye of fruits. But a little attention shews that, unlike to the parenchyma of fruits, which is formed of vessels terminating in minute points, the substance of these bodies is formed of a species of network, which, as M. Guettard observes, if all the matter contained within the meshes could be removed would resemble a skain of thread, of which one part, answering to the pedicle, is pinched together, and the other, answering to the body, is spread out without being cut. Again, the eye, in fruits, is not pervious, as is that part which answers to it in these fossils; nor does the pedicle at all agree with the stalk of fruits, either in proportionate size, or in figure.

Scheuchzer describing a fossil of this kind refers it to the *alcyonium stuposum Imperati*; but of the identity of these substances Mons. Guettard, with much propriety, doubts; although he allows that the external form, and particularly the opening in the upper part, might readily lead to this supposition. This doubt arose in the mind of M. Guettard, from comparing the structure of one of the *alcyonium stuposum* of Imperatus with the description of its structure as given by John Bauhin and by Count Marsilli; the result of his comparison being, that both the descriptions were in some respects erroneous. Taught by careful examination, he states it to be composed of fibres, more or less fine; intersecting each other, without order or regularity, and anastomosing together by their ramifications,

by which they form irregular meshes of various figures and quite empty. By this contexture a spongy mass is formed, which is covered by a thin pellicle, constituted in the same manner, excepting that the texture is more close and compact, and extended into a membrane-like substance, which may be detached and easily raised from the body, and which, when examined by a lens, appears to be a mass of fine fibres forming very small meshes, similar to the large ones of which the body is composed. The foot stalk, which spreads out and is a species of basement by which the fig is attached to the body on which it grows, does not seem to differ from the general substance in its conformation. Hence M. Guettard concludes the sea-fig to be merely a sponge, differing from other sponges only in form, and possessing like them the property of imbibing water and losing it by compression.

On comparing the structure of the sea-figs with that of these fossils, M. Guettard points out differences which are undoubtedly very essential. In the pedicles of the fossils, he observes that circular points may be seen, which will be found to be continued into the spherical part of these bodies; so that by different transverse sections they may be traced passing on like so many vessels, from the pedicle into the substance, and even on to the surface of the fossil: whereas, in the sea-fig, the fibres have no such regularity of disposition, nor are they thus continued like tubes from the pedicle into the substance of the fig.

M. Guettard next describes the other kind of fossil, which belongs to the class of fungites, and which, like the ficoid fossils just treated of, are open at their superior and

wider part, and in general possess somewhat of a canonical form; and from their varying in length, width, and size, frequently bear a resemblance to cups, glasses, funnels, cones, &c. whilst others are longer, cylindrical, and even fusiform.— This variety of figure is frequently dependant on the circumstances of the fractures which they have suffered; these fossils, like the former, being rarely found in a perfect state. M. Guettard appears to have been entirely foiled in the attempt to discover any recent zoophyte, which might be considered as bearing any analogy with these fossils. He first was disposed to consider them as being similar to the *spongia elegans* of Clusius, or the *spongia dura* of Sloane, but this opinion he found reason to relinquish, and was then induced to believe that they bore a nearer resemblance, in their general characters, to some species of madrepores than to any of the sponges. In several of these fossils he discovered an outer layer, which appeared to differ from the general substance of the fossil; and his opinion, he thought, derived support from this circumstance, for, on examining the interior lamina of these fossils, he conceived that it much resembled the hard smooth part which forms the corresponding parts in madrepores, &c. Madrepores and corals, he observes, are covered by a substance which has been distinguished as their cortical part, and immediately beneath this, there is a smooth substance of very close and compact texture, in which there are no striæ nor traces of any fibres. With this latter substance, he thinks, the external layer of these fossils exactly agrees: and he is confirmed in the supposition that it originally belonged to them, and was not derived from the ma-

trix in which they lay, by observing that, in one specimen, several little flat shells of oysters were adhering to this surface.

Nothing, he thinks, in the fossil kingdom approaches so near to these fossils, as the single-starred corals of the Baltic, described by Fougé. The only difference M. Guettard remarks, is that the corals described by Fougé, have striæ which extend from the centre of the coral to the edge: in such a manner as to form a star. This difference is, however, sufficient to remove all idea of similarity between the two bodies; since, as we have already seen the star constitutes the genus *Madrepora*, to which those corals belong, whilst in the fossil bodies now under consideration, there exist none of the characters which mark any of the species of zoophytes, which we have hitherto examined.

Many of these fossil bodies, it will be seen, differ so much from any known recent zoophyte, that were it not that vast numbers of these must be concealed from us, in the numerous recesses of the ocean, they would be concluded to possess not the least resemblance with any animal substance now existing; indeed, so considerable is that difference, that some substances will be placed before you, which, not only cannot be referred to any particular known species, but which would almost authorize the formation of new genera for their reception.

We shall proceed, however, as nearly as possible, according to the generally accepted systematic classification; and shall derive what aid can be obtained, from the examinations which have been made of living substances apparently of a similar nature. It is intended, therefore, to endeavour to comprise, under the genus *alcyonium* or

or *spongia*, the substances so accurately inquired into by M. Guettard, as well as several others, which have not been spoken of by him, but are evidently of the same kind.

With respect to the classification of these bodies, a difficulty almost insuperable presents itself; since the characteristic marks by which the substances belonging to these two genera are distinguished, in a recent state are frequently not to be discovered after they have sustained the change of petrification. Previously, however, to proceeding further in an enquiry on this subject, it will be proper to consider the nature of both alcyonium and of sponge, and to ascertain what are the distinctive characters of each.

The alcyonium is an animal which assumes a vegetable form; and which is either of a fleshy, gelatinous, spongy, or leathery substance, having an outward skin full of cells, with openings possessed by oviparous tentaculated hydra; the whole substance being fixed to some other body by a seeming trunk or root.

Count Marsilli, who carefully examined not only the physical, but the chemical properties of these bodies, observes that they are all surrounded by a porous leather-like bark; and that the interior substance is, in some, a jelly-like matter, and in others a mass of light ash-coloured acicular spines, which prick the hands on being handled, in the same manner as do the spines of the plant called the Indian fig.

Donati, in his Essay on the Natural History of the Adriatic Sea, has made, in some respects, a more minute examination of the structure of two different species of

alcyonia than even that of Count Marsilli, and was able to ascertain by the aid of a magnifying glass, the peculiar forms assumed by the spines of which these animals are in a great measure composed. Of those we shall soon have occasion to speak more particularly.

The forms in which these animals exist are very numerous; this depending not merely on the number of species but on the different irregular forms which the same species under different circumstances may assume. Thus Marsilli observes the same alcyonium, which sometimes grows flat, and thus covers large pieces of rocks, is at other times found in a rounded form.

From the different colours as well as forms which some of the species of these substances possess, they have obtained names expressive of their resemblance to certain fruits. Thus the *alcyonium lyncurium*, being of a globose form, of a fibrous internal structure, of a tubercular surface, and of a yellow colour, has been termed the sea-orange; the *a. bursa* being of a sub-globose form, of a pulpy substance, and of a green colour, has been termed the green sea-orange or sea-apple: the *a. cydonium*, which is of a roundish form, and of a yellow colour, has been distinguished as the sea-quince; and the *a. ficus*, from a very close resemblance to the fig in its form, has been called the sea-fig.

The sponge is a fixed, flexible animal, very torpid, varying in its figure, and composed either of reticulated fibres, or masses of small spiculæ interwoven together, which are clothed with a living gelatinous flesh, full of small mouths or holes on its surface, by which it sucks in and throws out the water.

The

The vitality of sponges had been suspected by the ancients, even in the time of Aristotle; they having perceived a particular motion in their substance, as if from shrinking, when they tore them off the rocks. This opinion of their possessing a degree of animal life was also entertained in the time of Pliny. Count Marsilli confirmed this opinion by observing, on their being taken out of the sea, a systolic and diastolic motion, in certain little round holes, which lasted until the water they had contained was quite dissipated. Mons. Peysonnell supposes sponges to have been formed by certain worms, which inhabited the labyrinthean windings of the sponge; and believed, that whatever life was found in these substances, existed in these worms, and not in the substance of the sponge, which he has convinced, was an inanimate body. This point was, however, determined by Mr. Ellis, who in a letter to Dr. Solander, relates the observations which he had made; by which he ascertained, that these worms, which he found in the sponge in great numbers, were a very small kind of *neréis*, or sea scolopendra; and that they were not the fabricators of the sponge, but had pierced their way into its soft substance, and made it only their place of retreat and security. Upon examining, in sea water, a variety of the crumb of bread sponge, the tops of which were full of tubular cavities or papillæ, he could plainly observe these little tubes to receive and pass the water to and fro; so that he inferred, that the sponge is an animal *sui generis*, whose mouths are so many holes or ends of branched tubes, opening on its surface; with these he supposes, it receives its nourish-

ment, and discharges, like the polypes, its excrements.

Mr. Ellis also discovered, that the texture is very different in different species of sponge: some being composed wholly of interwoven reticulated fibres, whilst others are composed of little masses of straight fibres of different sizes, from the most minute spiculæ to strong elastic shining spines, like small needles of one-third of an inch long; besides these, he observes, there is an intermediate sort, between the reticulated and the finer fasciculated kinds, which seem to partake of both sorts.

In the substances considered as alcyonia by Donati, as well as in some of those which have been described by Count Marsilli, similar large bundles of elastic fibres like needles were discovered. These had been reckoned alcyonia by most authors, but in Mr. Ellis's opinion they should not be so reckoned, since neither Donati nor Marsilli mentions any polype suckers extending out of their pores; he considering the existence of these as the distinguishing character of the genus alcyonium, as much as the pores without the polypes in these elastic fibrous bodies is the character of the sponges.

It is evident that these needle-like spiculæ cannot be considered as belonging to the genus spongia only; since among the alcyonia some are admitted to be formed of a spongy substance, into the composition of which, these spicules may of course be expected to enter; on the presence or absence therefore of polypes in the cells of the substance must alone depend the necessary distinction.

But when the difficulty of distinguishing between the alcyonia and

and the sponges, even in a recent state, is considered, the oryctologist will easily find an excuse for his inability, to make a similar distinction between these substances, after they have undergone the lapidifying process: when their pores have become filled; and their colour and their substance, and, in fact, their whole nature has been changed. Indeed, the assumed generic difference between the alcyonia and sponges is such as must be entirely lost in most of these substances which have undergone the change of petrification. Whether the pores, which are discoverable in a fossil, were the dwelling of the polypous hydræ or not, can no longer be ascertained; since their radiation, which is supposed to characterize the openings in which these minute animals exist, and which is frequently so faint in the recent alcyonium as hardly to be detected, is very likely, in the fossil substance, to be still more difficult to be made out. Indeed, from this indistinctness of the radiation, much difficulty appears to have arisen in making the necessary distinction between even the recent sponges and alcyonia: the graduation from the perfectly radiated opening of the alcyonium, to the plain opening of the sponge, being so gradual and imperceptible, as to render it a difficult task, even where the substances are in a recent state, to draw the line where alcyonium ceases and sponge begins. But here is not the whole of the difficulty; several of the fossils, which will be presently described, possess some of the characters of acidia and actinia, with those of the sponge or alcyonium; thereby rendering their distinct and correct classification almost hopeless. —

Hence, although I shall in general speak of these bodies as alcyonia: I am aware, that when their histories have been elucidated by the inspection of more illustrative specimens, several of them may claim other designations.

The consideration of another circumstance leads to the necessity of giving up every idea of distinguishing the alcyonia from the sponges, whilst in a mineralized state. — Among the fossil zoophytes which claim a situation under one or other of these genera, by far the greater number are such as are so totally different from any known species of either alcyonium or sponge, as to render it almost impossible to determine under which genus they ought to be placed. Under these circumstances, you must perceive that the attempt to separate these fossils, by specific distinctions, at present, would be hopeless: it can only be effected when, by additional observations, their nature and forms are more perfectly known.

When it is recollected what very considerable variations in form, are found to take place in the recent individuals, of the several species into which these substances are divided; and when it is considered, that whilst passing into a mineralized state, their figure and appearance may be also much changed, it may be suspected that hardly any opportunity of fair comparison could be found, between the recent and fossil alcyonia.

This however is very far from being the case; and indeed when we reflect on the transmutation which has taken place; that a soft, gelatinous, or spongy substance, has become a hard and ponderous stone, we cannot but be affected with a high degree of astonish-

ment: especially on perceiving, that this great and extraordinary change of substance has been accompanied by so little change of form. In consequence of this I trust I shall be able to place before you many bodies, even in a silicified state, which will immediately appear to have been animals of this description, belonging to a former world. So great indeed will be the variety of these bodies, and so perfectly well preserved will they appear as to render it necessary for me to say a few words, respecting the state of preservation in which they are found.

This is rendered necessary; since the comparatively frequent appearance of these bodies, in a fossil state, appears to contradict a position laid down in the former volume, whilst speaking of fruits, that substances possessing a pulpy consistence were not likely to be found in a fossil state; since their decomposition would most probably take place with too much rapidity, to allow of that change being effected, on which their mineralization would depend. But a peculiarity of structure exists in these animals, which exempts them from the influence of this law. It appears, as we have seen from the observation of Marsilli and Donati, that these animals have blended, with their gelatinous and carneous substance, innumerable minute spiculæ, which may be considered as the bones of the animal. These manifest themselves by the prickling sensation they occasion, on being handled, which has obtained for some of these animals the name of the sea nettle. That these spiculæ, formed of a hard and durable matter, may, in some, and especially that the spongy fibres and coriaceous covering may, in others, keep up the form of the

animal, for a sufficient time to admit of the petrifactive process being accomplished, seems to be not improbable; and indeed appears to afford a satisfactory mode of explaining this curious fact.

That the bodies now about to be more particularly described are the remains of animals of a former world, seems to require no stronger proof, than the circumstance of these inhabitants of the sea being found in their changed state, in mountains much elevated above the level of the sea, and at a considerable distance from the situations which it now possesses. Whilst treating of the fossil corals, many were pointed out, whose recent analogues were positively not as yet known, and which were therefore conjectured to be the remains of certain species which might be now extinct. Any opinion of this kind with respect to these animals appears to be hardly admissible; since from the innumerable recesses in which they lurk, and still more from the comparatively small degree of eagerness with which they have been sought, we are totally unable to form any conjecture, as to the number of those which may have hitherto entirely escaped observation. Analogy indeed may lead us to conclude, that by far the greater part of these fossil bodies are actually the remains of extinct species; but where evidence of a stronger kind cannot be also obtained, the fact must be considered as undetermined.

Having made these few prefatory remarks, I shall now proceed to a more particular examination of such fossils of this description, in my possession as are most illustrative of the history of these extraordinary animals.

Those which are of a ramified form

form seem to be most rarely found in a mineralized state. The specimen however which is figured, plate VII. fig. 12, and which was found in Berkshire, is undoubtedly the fossil remains of one of these species; although it is impossible to say to what particular ramified species it belongs, or whether indeed it is at all referable to any known species.

An examination of the substance of this fossil, now a mixture of silex and carbonate of lime, affords us internal evidence of its origin; since its texture is such, as I have found almost constantly to characterize the fossil remains of any individual of this genus, which had been composed of a sponge-like substance. This substance has evidently, like sponge, been of a reticular texture; but the disposition of the meshes, if so they may be called, is in the spongy alcyonium much more uniform and determinate than in ordinary sponge, and though not to be described in words, the texture is so peculiar and characteristic, as directly to be known by those, who have been in the habit of examining these and similar substances, by the aid of magnifying glasses.

The fossil represented plate VII, fig. 6, and which is also from Berkshire, appears to bear a tolerably close resemblance to *alcyonium digitatum* of Linnæus; or the *dead man's hand*, or *dead man's toes* of Ellis. Its texture evidently appears to be of that kind, being finely reticulated, which would correspond with the carneous spongy substance, of which the recent zoophyte is formed. Its surface also thickly beset with minute openings, bearing somewhat of stellated appearance to the naked eye, serves to confirm the resem-

blance. This fossil is now a carbonate of lime moderately hard, but friable.

In the elegant work of Mr. Knorr, Mr. Walsh describes several fossil elongated alcyonia, by the silly term which the ancients had adopted, of *priapolithi*. One of these from Touraine is figured, plate VII. fig. 1. It had at its superior termination that opening, observable in many of these animals, which served for the reception of the sea water, from which, it is probable, they derived their support.

On rubbing down this substance on a sandstone, at this termination, for the purpose of examining its structure, its hardness and the partial polish it obtained, proved, that it had suffered an impregnation with silica: and an examination of this surface with a lens plainly showed, that the flinty part was regularly distributed in continuous meandering lines, bearing the peculiar and characteristic form of the spongy part of alcyonia, whilst the intervening spaces appeared to be filled by a softer substance, a carbonate of lime. The substance was therefore partly immersed in dilute muriatic acid, by which the calcareous part was speedily removed, with effervescence, and the siliceous part left, possessing the fine retiform texture of the spongy alcyonium, surrounding the central opening already mentioned, as may be seen in the upper part of the figure.

The fossil represented plate VII, fig. 9, approaches the nearest, in its general form and appearance, to the *alcyonium cydonium* Linnæi, the *alcyonium primum* of Discorides, or rather to the representation of this animal as given Donati. It must however be,

lieve, considered, as differing from any known animal of this genus.

This fossil is of a roundish form, rendered unequal by shallow depressions about the width of a finger, which pass from the superior to the inferior part of the fossil, and are separated from each other by tuberculated ridges. At the upper part has been a circular opening more than half an inch in diameter; and, at the lower part, is a rugged spot, as though the pedicle had been here separated: a circumstance indeed which renders its affinity to the alcyonium described by Donati rather more doubtful. The substance of this fossil appears to be a limestone, which, probably from some tinge of iron, has obtained a reddish brown colour. It is not of a very close texture, apparently from the superadded calcareous matter not having accurately filled all the interstices between the fibres. Hence numerous small openings are, even in its present state, observable on its surface, which on close inspection are seen to be such as would result from a loose or spongy texture.

Whilst treating of the alcyonium, of the species to which this seems to approach, Donati particularly describes and delineates the curiously formed spiculæ, which constitute a part of its substance. The body, as well as the cortical part, he remarks, is formed of two substances: the one of which is fleshy, and the other osseous. The latter, he adds, is formed into spines; which, near the cortical part, are in great number, and closely intermingled; being about the length of two lines, and even longer. They are either of a fusiform figure, or are finely pointed at one end, and then gradually enlarge

towards the middle: then, diminishing as they lengthen, they divide into three sharp conical points, around which are fixed numerous minute globular bodies, which are chiefly found in the cortical part.

A very strict examination, with a lens, of the surface of numerous fossil alcyonia, did not however discover any appearance of similar spines, and almost induced me to a ready concurrence with Plancus, who relates, that he has dissected various bodies of this kind, and has seen the osseous fibres disposed in a radiated form; but as to the wonderful bark, the structure of which is so floridly described by Donati, he says, I have not seen it, and observes, that the same thing has happened to him, with respect to the greater part of the figures in Donati's book, which, he says, are embellishments of the designer, drawn by the rule and compass, rather than in agreement with the truth and simplicity of nature.

Being in possession of another specimen of this kind, formed of a much harder and closer stone, and which from its appearance I supposed to be invested with its cortical part, I resolved to sacrifice it to a more rigorous search for the spines described by Donati; concluding that, since all agreed as to their differing in their bony hardness from the other parts of this animal, I should at least discover some traces of them, although I might not be able to make out their form.

This fossil was therefore subjected to the only modes of dissection which I could employ with substances possessing a stony hardness. A polished section of it was obtained on different parts of it, and at different depths; by which
the

the peculiar spongy structure, already noticed as belonging to these bodies, was perceived; but no appearance of spines could be detected.

The specimen was then immersed in dilute muriatic acid, and examined at different periods, to ascertain whether the new surfaces thus obtained displayed any particular appearance. After rather more than a quarter of an inch of its substance was thus removed, I was pleased to find with a lens of moderate power, several cruciform spines, formed as it were, by two fusiform bodies, not an eighth of an inch in length, crossing each other at right angles, and terminating at each end in a very sharp point.

When these bodies were first discovered, the specimen was still wet with the water, with which the acid had been removed. In this state they possessed a considerable degree of transparency, which they rapidly lost, as the water evaporated: so that when dry, they were completely opaque, and of a chalky whiteness. From their possessing this hydrophanous quality, and from their having withstood the action of the muriatic acid, there appears to be the greatest reason for supposing, that these bodies, which were originally the spines of the animal, are now formed of an hydrophanous chalcidony, and imbedded in a matrix of carbonate of lime, which has pervaded or has supplied the place of the soft spongy part. This and the preceding fossil alcyonia are from Switzerland.

Alcyonium ficus Linn. accurately depicted in the *Metallotlica* of Mercatus as *Alcyonium quintum antiquorum*, and particularly described by Marsilli as *Figue de substance*

d'éponge & d'alcyon, resembles much, in form, the brown silicious fossil. The recent alcyonium, according to the count, is of the form of a fig, being attached to the rocks by branches proceeding from its smaller end; its upper part being a little flattened, with a hole in the middle. Its colour, he says, resembles that of tobacco, and its parenchymatous substance, he thinks, cannot be compared to any thing better than to nutgalls, when well dried. In all these respects, a very exact agreement seems to exist between the recent and fossil substances. Still, however, the fibres running over its surface, and penetrating its substance, with the grooves which appear to have been formed by other fibres, which are now removed, distinguish it, not only from this, but, I believe, from all known alcyonia. This fossil is from Wiltshire, and appears to be formed entirely of flint.

The fossil, from Mount Randenberg, near Schafhausen, in Switzerland, possesses evident marks of its alcyonic origin. This fossil, like those of the ramose kind, has that reticular texture, which appears to be peculiar to the spongy alcyonia. In this specimen also, as well as in those, the reticular fibres are impregnated with silica, and have their interstices filled with calcareous matter. In this, as in the fossil last described, the remains of the pedicle, the organ, by which its attachment to its appropriate spot was accomplished, are observable; as well as the superior opening, which passes into the substance of the fossil.

The fossil represented, which is from the neighbourhood of Saumur being a very perfect fossil of the kind described by Mons. Guettard, agrees, in its general characters, as well

well as in its texture, with that one which has been just described. In this specimen, at its superior surface, there are, as Mons. Guettard observes is sometimes the case, four openings; and the pedicles, as well as its lateral processes, which appear like roots, seem to have been formed with a great degree of luxuriance.

A very perfect fossil of this kind, and similar in its substance and texture to the alcyonia, which have been just described, but of a dark red colour, where it is not

invested with its cortical part, which is of a grey colour, pervaded by a slight tinge of red. The pedicle, and the opening at the superior part, are here very perfect. Slight traces of lines, passing from the pedicle to the opening, are discoverable on this specimen, and, doubtlessly point out the arrangement of fibres, by which the animal was enabled to draw in and eject the water which supplied it with food. This fossil, I have reason to believe, is English."

ON NATIVE GOLD DUST

FOUND IN THE DEPARTMENT OF LA LOIRE.

[From a Paper of M. Giulio in the *Journal des Mines*, vol. xx.]

IT has long been known that a great number of rivers and rivulets carry with them particles of native gold, of larger or smaller size; that, independently of the places where this metal is found in its matrix, it is disseminated in grains in their sands, as those of the Rhone, the Arriège, and the Cèze in France, and with us in those of the rivers Loire, Balthée, Cervo, Elbo, Maillon, and Orba, and of the rivulets Oropa, Orémo, Evauçon, Vison, &c. It is equally known that there are persons who make it their whole business to search for this gold, who are called in the language of the country, *arpailleurs*, *orpailleurs*, or *paillo-teurs*.

Mineralogists are not agreed respecting the origin of these gold grains: the older mineralogists, and Brochant among the moderns, maintain that this gold is washed

by the currents from its native mines, commonly situated in primitive mountains. "Native gold," says Brochant, "is found chiefly in primitive mountains, where it is met with in veins, and sometimes disseminated in the rock: it occurs also in alluvial strata, where it is frequently wrought with advantage. The sand of several rivers is mixed with grains of gold, which are separated from it by washing. It is unquestionably evident, that the gold here is met with accidentally; and that it is deposited by the water that has washed it away from its original situation, which was probably the same as is indicated above." Others think that these metallic particles were originally disseminated in auriferous strata, in the very places, where they are exposed to view, by great floods, or overflowings of the rivers, or that they

they have been washed into the latter by torrents in storms of heavy rains.

I do not mean to enter into the question at large. This I leave to the learned, whose chief study is the improvement of the science of mineralogy. My inductions go no further than the small number of researches I have made; yet I think I may venture to say, from the observations I am about to present to the reader respecting the locality and situation of the native gold dust in the commune of St. George, that such dust is not always washed down from mines in the mountains by rivers. And if such were the primitive origin of their dissemination amid the strata, it certainly could have happened only at some very remote period of the grand disruptions that have taken place on the surface and exterior of the strata of our globe. But these revolutions, of which we have no records, are buried in the night of time. For we shall see that strata which furnishes gold dust are found at a considerable depth in some hills, equally remote from mountains capable of furnishing it, and from rivers that could force it from its native situation. It could, therefore, have mingled in them only at a remote period, when the strata of the hills assumed the arrangement they have at present, namely at the time of their formation.

This has been the opinion of several naturalists of our country, and I should be guilty of injustice to them, if, in collecting fresh proofs tending to support their hypothesis, I omitted to mention their valuable works. Accordingly I shall quote Mr. de Robillant, who, speaking of the gold dust found in the sands of the Orco, says very

positively: "This river carries along gold, which the people of the country observe only below the bridge down to the Po: which confirms the opinion held by the people best acquainted with the natural history of the country, that it is from the gullies and hills that this gold dust is washed down into the river by the rapidity of the water during storms. This valuable metal does not come from the high mountains, since none is found above the bridge; but it originates from the washing of the red earth, of which most of these hills and plains are composed, and which in stormy weather is carried down into the principal river."

Mr. Balbo agrees with M. de Robillant respecting this species of native gold, in his learned Memoir on the auriferous sand of the Orco. "Every one," says he, "knows that gold dust is collected in the Orco. But I do not believe it is equally known, that gold is found not in the bed of the river alone, but to the distance of several miles, every where mingled more or less with the sand. It is very positively asserted that it occurs in all the little rivulets between Valperga and Rivara. I endeavoured to discover whether all the waters rise sufficiently near to each other to lead us to suppose that they equally derive their gold from the same mine, as it is in this way that the vulgar and even most of the learned, generally account for the gold found in rivers. But I was completely convinced that the waters of which I speak arise from different heights at some distance from one another; so that, as we cannot suppose all these places

“ places to contain mines, from
 “ which the gold may be derived,
 “ we must necessarily admit that
 “ the particles of gold are not
 “ separated daily by the action of
 “ the water, and carried along by
 “ its streams, but that the water
 “ finds them in the soil itself over
 “ which it flows. And it is fur-
 “ ther confirmed by the observa-
 “ tion, that the auriferous strata
 “ disappear as we proceed up the
 “ Orco; that we find them at
 “ furthest only as high as the
 “ bridge; that above this all traces
 “ of them are lost, though this is
 “ very far from the springs; while
 “ as we descend into the plain
 “ these strata are every day expo-
 “ sed by the action of the water,
 “ and particularly in floods.”

In a second part I shall speak of the theory proposed by M. Napion, in his Memoir on the mountains of Canavais, who having observed that all the pyrites of those mountains are auriferous, attributes the particles of gold to their decomposition or attrition. This is the opinion of our worthy colleague, Dr. Bonvoison.

The observations I am now about to communicate appear to me still more decisive than the proofs alleged by these authors; and if the earths of which I shall speak do not furnish so large a quantity of gold dust, they afford indisputable proofs that the gold certainly does not proceed from any mine traversed by water, at least in the present day.

In the north of the commune of St. George, in the circle of Chivas, in the department of the Loire, we find fertile rising grounds and hills almost wholly covered with vineyards, which continue till we come to the highest of them, the hill of Macugnano,

part of which is cultivated, part covered with wild chesnut trees; a distance of about three miles. In our progress from the outer and upper surface of these hills to the bottom of the valleys, which intersect them in different directions, we find in general three very distinct strata. The upper stratum is for the most part argillaceous, as it furnishes an excellent earth for making bricks and tiles. The thickness of this stratum varies in different places from three or four feet to twenty-five or thirty. The second stratum, which stretches likewise horizontally beneath the stratum of clay, is a few feet thick. It is composed of a considerable portion of sand, of gravel, and of pebbles of different natures, argillaceous, calcareous, and quartzose. Of these I shall speak more particularly in the second part, as well as of the fragments produced by their being broken or decomposed. The third or lower stratum, which forms the bed of the valleys, and of the rivulets that run through them in rainy weather, is composed in great measure of the fragments of the argillaceous and calcareous stones of the second stratum. The rains have gradually produced little gullies in different directions; which by the falling of fresh rain, and the quantity and rapidity of the water, have in the course of time been extended and converted into valleys, more or less broad and deep in different places. Part of the water of several gullies accumulates, particularly in one valley, where during storms and long rains it forms a torrent, called in the country the Merdanzone. Now the gold dust is found chiefly among the sands of this torrent, and of the small lateral rivulets that

that flow into the Merdanzone or other similar valleys.

Does this gold proceed equally from the different strata I have mentioned above, or from one of them only? I first examined the brick earth (that of the upper stratum) in different places and at various depths: I also examined considerable depositions of this earth accumulated in the shallow valleys: but I never discovered the smallest particle of gold in it. The searchers for gold know this so well by long experience and a great number of fruitless trials, that they never pay any regard to this stratum. It is the stratum beneath the argillaceous composed of gravel, sand, micaceous and calcareous stones, in which the particles of gold are found.

Of this I have convinced myself by several trials: and though, in general, if equal quantities of earth be taken from this stratum, and from the bed of the torrent, or rivulets flowing into it, the latter will yield most gold, it seldom or ever happens that no gold is found in the former upon trial. The particles of gold obtained from the auriferous stratum itself, which have not yet been rolled along with the sand by the rains, have a duller and deeper yellow colour than those collected in the bed of the torrent or of the rivulets, which are of a more shining yellow, no doubt in consequence of the attrition. They are generally found amid a sand that is more or less fine and blackish, and apparently of a siliceous and ferruginous nature. The earth of the same nature, which reaches to some distance, equally contains gold. Thus a brook that runs on the east of the commune of Aglie,

between the mansion and the park, and receives the rain water that washes down an earth composed of different strata of the same nature as those of the auriferous hills of St. George, equally rolls along particles of gold disseminated beneath the argillaceous stratum, which in some places is of very considerable thickness.

Between fifteen and twenty years ago several persons in the commune of St. George made it their principal employment to search for gold in the sand of the torrents and rivulets that I have mentioned. This they did particularly after or during heavy rains, and after storms.

The quantity of gold they collected in a day was very variable. Sometimes each of them would gain eight or ten shillings a day, at other times scarce a fourth or fifth of this sum. The size of the particles too varied much, from an almost invisible atom to the weight of nine or ten grains or more. They were afterward sold to merchants, who sent them to the mint.

I do not speak here of gold dust disseminated in arable land. Earth of this kind in the territory of Salussole, as I am informed by my colleague, Giobert, contains particles of gold. The earth of gardens is known to contain them. It has been proved in our days by the experiments of Sage, Berthollet, Rouelle, Darcet, and Deyeux, that there are particles of gold in vegetables. Berthollet has extracted about 2.14 gram. (33 grs.) from 48900 gram. or a hundred weight of ashes.

Gold has not yet been found in the arable land in the environs of St. George, but only in the stratum

tum beneath the clay, the surface of which is cultivated. The auriferous stratum, as I have observed, is more than thirty feet deep below the argillaceous stratum in some places.

We have nothing to do here with particles of gold mixed with the surface mould by the decomposition of plants, or which plants have derived from the earth. I have no doubt that the particles of gold found in the environs of St. George have the same origin as those met with from Pont to the entrance of the Orco and of the Mallon into the Po, from Valperga and Rivara, to Aglie and St. George's; as well as of those which Dr. Bonvoisin observed in

the environs of Challant in the valley of Aoste. The famous piece of native gold preserved in the arsenal was found there. In that space, pieces of gold of the weight of a louis have sometimes been found; and other pieces are mentioned of the value of more than 100 livres (4*l.* 3*s.* 4*d.*). Probably the gold found in the earth in the valley of Brozzo, and in other places, has the same origin. My conjectures on this subject shall be proposed in the second part of this memoir, where the nature of the earths and stones of the auriferous strata, as well as the nature of the land in which they are contained, shall be entered into more at large."

ACCOUNT OF THE MERINO SHEEP

LATELY PRESENTED TO HIS MAJESTY.

[From a Paper of Sir JOSEPH BANKS, Bart. &c. &c. inserted in the Communications to the Board of Agriculture.]

A CONSIDERABLE part of Estremadura, Leon, and the neighbouring provinces of Spain is appropriated to the maintenance of the Merino flocks, called by the Spaniards Trashumantes, as are also broad green roads, leading from one province to the other, and extensive resting-places, where the sheep are baited on the road. So careful is the police of the country to preserve them during their journeys from all hazard of disturbance or interruption that no person, not even a foot passenger, is suffered to travel upon these roads while the

sheep are in motion, unless he belongs to the flocks.

The country on which the sheep are depastured, both in the southern and the northern parts, is set out into divisions, separated from each other by land-marks only, without any kind of fences; each of these is called a Dehesa, and is of a size capable of maintaining a flock of about a thousand sheep; a greater number, of course, in the south country, where the lambs are reared, and fewer in the north country, where the sheep arrive after the flock has been celled.

Every

Every proprietor must possess as much of these in each province as will maintain his flock. In the temperate season of winter and spring, the flocks remain in Estremadura, and there the ewes bring forth their lambs in December. As soon as the increasing heats of April and May, have scorched up the grass, and rendered the pasturage scanty, they commence their march towards the mountains of Leon; and, after having been shorn on the road, at vast establishments, called Esquileos, erected for that purpose, pass their summer in the elevated country, which supplies them with abundance of rich grass; and they do not leave the mountains till the frosts of September begin to damage the herbage.

A flock in the aggregate is called a cavana: this is divided into as many subdivisions as there are thousands of sheep belonging to it; each sheep, besides being scar-marked in the face with a hot iron, when young, is branded after every shearing with a broad pitch brand, generally of the first letter of the name of the proprietor, and each subdivision is distinguished from the rest by the part of the sheep's body on which this mark is placed.

By the laws of the Mesta, each cavana must be governed by an officer called Mayoral; for each subdivision of a thousand sheep, five shepherds and four dogs are appointed. Some of these inferior shepherds obtain the office of Rabadan, the duty of which is to give a general superintendence under the control of the Mayoral, also to prescribe and administer medicines to the sick sheep. At the time of travelling, and when the ewes are yearning, one or two extra shepherds

are allowed for each thousand sheep.

The number of Merino sheep in Spain is estimated by Burgoyne 6,000,000; these of course must be attended by 30,000 shepherds, and 24,000 dogs at ordinary times, and they find occasional employment for 5 or 10,000 additional persons in the season of lambing and of travelling.

In their journey each subdivision is attended by its own shepherds and dogs, and kept separate as far as may be from all others. The duty of the dogs is to chase the wolves, who are always upon the watch, when the sheep are on the road, and are more wily than our foxes; they are taught also, when a sick sheep lags behind unobserved by the shepherds, to stay with and defend it, till some one returns back in search of it. There are besides in each subdivision about six tame wethers, called Mansos; these wear bells, and are obedient to the voice of the shepherds, who frequently give them small pieces of bread: some of the shepherds lead, the mansos are always near them, and this disposes the flock to follow.

Every sheep is well acquainted with the situation of the Dehesa to which its subdivision belongs, and will at the end of the journey go straight to it, without the guidance of the shepherds. Here the flock grazes all the day under the eyes of the attendants: when the evening comes on, the sheep are collected together, and they soon lie down to rest; the shepherds and their dogs then lie down on the ground round the flock, and sleep, as they term it, under the stars, or in huts that afford little shelter from inclement weather; and this is their custom

custom all the year, except that each is allowed, in his turn, an absence of about a month, which he spends with his family : and it is remarkable, that the families of these shepherds, reside entirely in Leon.

The shepherds who came with his Majesty's flock, were questioned on the subject of giving salt to their sheep : they declared that this is only done in the hottest season of the year, when the sheep are on the mountains ; that in September it is left off ; and that they dare not give salt to ewes forward with lamb, being of opinion that it causes abortion.

It is scarcely credible, though it appears on the best authority to be true, that under the operation of the laws of the Mesta, which confide the care of the sheep to the management of their shepherds, without any interference on the part of the proprietor, no profit of the flock comes to the hands of the owner, except what is derived from the wool ; the carcasses of the culled sheep are consumed by the shepherds, and it does not appear that any account is rendered by them to their employers, of the value of the skins, the tallow, &c. : the profit derived by a proprietor from a flock, is estimated on an average at about one shilling a head, and the produce of a capital vested in a flock is said to fluctuate between five and ten per cent.

The sheep are always low kept. It is the business of each Mayoral to increase his flock to as large a number as the land allotted to it can possibly maintain : when it has arrived at that pitch, all further increase is useless, as there is no sale for these sheep, unless some neighbouring flock has been reduced by mortality below its pro-

per number : the most of the lambs are therefore every year killed as soon as they are yeaned, and each of those preserved is made to suck two or three ewes ; the shepherds say, that the wool of an ewe that brings up her lamb without assistance, is reduced in its value.

At shearing time the shepherds, shearers, washers, and a multitude of unnecessary attendants, are fed upon the flesh of the culled sheep ; and it seems that the consumption occasioned by this season of feasting, is sufficient to devour the whole of the sheep that are draughted from the flock. Mutton in Spain is not a favourite food ; in truth, it is not in that country prepared for the palate as it is in this. We have our lamb-fairs, our hog-fairs, our shearling-fairs, our fairs for culls, and our markets for fat sheep ; where the mutton, having passed through these different stages of preparation, each under the care of men whose soil and whose skill are best suited to the part they have been taught by their interest to assign to themselves, is offered for sale ; and if fat and good, it seldom fails to command a price by the pound, from five to ten per cent. dearer than that of beef. In Spain they have no such sheep-fairs calculated to subdivide the education of each animal, by making it pass through many hands, as works of art do in a manufacturing concern, and they have not any fat sheep-markets that at all resemble ours. The low state of grazing in Spain, ought not therefore to be wondered at, nor the poverty of the Spanish farmers ; they till a soil sufficiently productive by nature, but are robbed of the reward due to the occupier, by the want of an advantageous market for their produce, and the benefit of an extensive

sive consumption; till the manufacturing and mercantile parts of a community, become opulent enough to pay liberal prices, the agricultural part of it cannot grow rich by selling.

That the sole purpose of the journeys taken annually by these sheep, is to seek food where it can be found; and that these migrations would not be undertaken, if either in the northern or the southern provinces a sufficiency of good pasture could be obtained during the whole year, appears a matter of certainty. That change of pasture has no effect upon their wool, is clear, from all the experiments tried in other countries, and in Spain also: for Burgoyne tells us, that there are stationary flocks, both in Leon and Estremadura, which produce wool quite as fine as that of the Trashumantes.

The sheep lately presented to his Majesty are of the Cavana of Paular, one of the very finest in point of pile, and esteemed above all others for the beauty of carcase. In both these opinions, M. Lasteyrie, a French writer on sheep, who lived many years in Spain, and paid diligent attention to the Merino sheep, entirely agrees: he also tells us, that the Cavana of Negrete, from whence the sheep imported by his Majesty in the year 1791 were selected, is not only one of the finest piles, but produces also the largest-carcased sheep of all the Merinos. Mr. Burgoyne agrees with him in asserting, that the piles of Paular, Negrete, and Escorial, have been withheld from exportation, and retained for the royal manufactory of Gaudalaxara, ever since it was first established.

The Cavana of Paular consists of 26,000 sheep. It originally be-

longed to the rich Carthusian monastery of that name, near Segovia; soon after the Prince of the Peace rose into power, he purchased the flock from the monks, with the land belonging to it, both in Estremadura and in Leon, at a price equal to twenty French francs a head, 16s. 8d. English. All the sheep lately arrived are marked with a large M. the mark of Don Manuel.

The number sent from Spain to the King was 2000, equal to two subdivisions of the original Cavana. To make the present the more valuable, these were selected by the shepherds from eight subdivisions, in order to choose young, well-shaped, and fine woolled animals. This fact is evident, from the marks which are placed on eight different parts of the bodies of the sheep now at Kew.

The whole number embarked was 2,214; of these, 214 were presented by the Spaniards to some of his Majesty's ministers, and 427 died on the journey, either at sea or on their way from Portsmouth to Kew. His Majesty was graciously pleased to take upon himself the whole of the loss, which reduced the royal flock to 1573; several more have since died. As the time of giving the ram in Spain is July, the ewes were full of lamb when they embarked, several of them cast their lambs when the weather was bad at sea, and are rendered so weak and infirm by abortion, that it is to be feared more will die, notwithstanding the great care taken of them by his Majesty's shepherds. A few have died of the rot. This disease must have been contracted by halting on some swampy district, in their journey from the mountains to the sea at Gijon, where

where they were embarked, as one sheep died rotten at Portsmouth ; there is every reason however to hope, that the disease will not spread, as the land on which they are now kept has never been subject to its ravages, being of a very light and sandy texture.

It is well worthy of observation, that although the Swedes, the Saxons, the Danes, the Prussians, the Austrians, and of late the French, have, either by the foresight of their governments, or the patriotic exertions of individuals, imported Merino sheep, no nation has hitherto ventured to assert, that they possess the complete and unmixed race of any one Cavana ; this circumstance does not appear to have been attended to any where but in England ; though in fact each Cavana is a separate and distinct breed of sheep, not suffered by the Spaniards to mingle with others. The difference in value of the wool of different Spanish flocks is very great ; at this time, when Spanish wool is unusually dear, the prima piles are worth more than 7s. a pound, and yet the inferior ones scarce reach 5s. Even the French, attentive as that nation is to all things that concern the interest of individuals, appear to have overlooked this circumstance, and to have contented themselves with making up the numbers of their importations, without paying any regard to it ; they have not at least stated in any of their publications, that attention was paid to the securing sheep of a prima pile, and keeping the breed of that pile pure and unmixed after they had obtained it.

Our merchantsdealers in Spanish wool range the prima piles in the following order of value, as ap-

pears by a statement in the year 1792.

Paular.

Negrete.

Muro.

Patrimonio ; and 15 more not necessary to be enumerated. M. Lasteyrie, the French writer on sheep, ranges them not very differently ; he states them as follows : but both English and French agree that all the prima piles are nearly equal in fineness of fibre, and consequently in value to the manufacturer.

Escorial, called by us Patrimonio.

Guadalupe.

Paular.

Infantado.

Montareo.

Negrete, &c.

The Danes, he tells us, procured their sheep from the best piles ; but there is no appearance of their having, since they obtained them, kept the flocks separate, nor are they at present so remarkable for fine wool as the Saxons, whose wool is now at least as fine as that of Spain is, upon an average of prima and second rate piles.

The Swedes were the first people who imported the Spanish breed. This good work was undertaken and completed by the patriotic exertions of a merchant of the name of Alstroemer, in the year 1723. The next who obtained an importation of Merino sheep were the Saxons, who are indebted for the benefits they enjoy from the improvement of their wools to the prince Xavier, administrator of the electorate during the minority of the elector, and brother in law to the King of Spain. The Prince obtained a flock of these valuable animals in

1766,

1766, and in 1778 an addition to it of 100 rams and 200 ewes. The Danes followed his useful example, as also did both Prussia and Austria. Every one of these countries continue at this moment to profit largely by the improvements these sheep have occasioned in their agricultural concerns. So far from truth is the too common assertion, that their wool will not continue fine in any country but Spain, that in the year 1806, when

the ports of Spain were closed against us, a very large quantity of fine wool, the produce of German Merino sheep, was imported into this country from Hamburgh, and used by our manufacturers as a substitute for Spanish wool. In truth, some of this wool was so fine that it carried in the British market as high a price as the best Spanish piles were sold for, in times of peace and amity."

ON THE AGENCY OF ELECTRICITY ON ANIMAL SECRETION.

[By WM. H. WOLLASTON, M. D. Sec. R. S.]

"**A**T the time when Mr. Davy first communicated to me his important experiments on the separation and transfer of chemical agents by the means of the Voltaic apparatus, which was in the autumn of 1806, I was forcibly struck with the probability that animal secretions were affected by the agency of a similar electric power; since the existence of this power in some animals was fully proved by the phenomena of the Torpedo, and of the Gymnotus-*Electricus*; and since the universal prevalence of similar powers of lower intensity in other animals was rendered highly probable, by the extreme suddenness with which the nervous influence is communicated from one part of the living system to another.

And though the separation of chemical agents, as well as their transfer to a distance, and their transition through solids, and through fluids which might be expected to oppose their progress,

had not then been effected but by powerful batteries; yet it appeared highly probable that the weakest electric energies might be capable of producing the same effects; though more slowly in proportion to the weakness of the powers employed.

I accordingly at that time made an experiment for elucidating this hypothesis, and communicated it to Mr. Davy and to others of my friends. But though it was conclusive with regard to the sufficiency of very feeble powers, it did not appear deserving of publication, until I could adduce some evidence of the actual employment of such means in the animal economy.

As I am not accustomed to making experiments on living animals, I had deferred pursuing the application of my theory, until it was again brought back to my mind by finding that the same thought had occurred to Dr. Young. And as it has already been printed some months in the Syllabus of his Course

Course of Medical Lectures, I had for the present relinquished all thoughts of recording conjectures, which, if not well founded, might retard the progress of science.

But since some experiments relating to the same inquiry are now about to be published by Mr. Home, it may perhaps be of use to add my experiment to the general stock of information, although I have not myself improved upon it by any further consideration, and am not yet enabled to confirm the hypothesis, which it appeared to support, by any new arguments.

The experiment was conducted as follows :

I took a piece of glass tube about three quarters of an inch in diameter, and nearly two inches long, open at both ends, and covered one of them with a piece of clean bladder. Into this little vessel I poured some water, in which I dissolved $\frac{1}{48}$ of its weight of salt ; and after placing it upon a shilling with a bladder slightly moistened externally, I bent a wire of zinc so, that while one extremity rested on the shilling, the other might be immersed about an inch in the water. By successive examination of the external surface of the bladder, I found that even this feeble power occasioned soda to be separated from the water, and to transude through the substance of the bladder. The presence of alkali was discernible

by the application of reddened litmus-paper after two or three minutes, and was generally manifest even by the test of turmeric before five minutes had expired.

The efficacy of powers so feeble as are here called into action, tends to confirm the conjecture, that similar agents may be instrumental in effecting the various animal secretions, which have not yet been otherwise explained. The qualities of each secreted fluid may hereafter instruct us as to the species of electricity that prevails in each organ of the body.

For instance, the general redundancy of acid in urine, though secreted from blood that is known to be alkaline, appears to indicate in the kidneys a state of positive electricity ; and since the proportion of alkali in bile seems to be greater than is contained in the blood of the same animal, it is not improbable that the secreting vessels of the liver may be comparatively negative.

With such views of the vital functions it becomes an interesting subject of inquiry, what other organs may also be considered as permanently different in their state of electricity, and what others may possibly be subject to temporary states of opposite electric energies, and may, by means of such relation, produce the most powerful effects in the animal economy."

ANALYSIS OF THE SMUT IN WHEAT.

[By Messrs. FOURCROY and VAUQUELIN. *La Revue Philosophique*, &c. being an Abridgment of a Paper read at the National Institute.]

"THE smut in wheat has already occupied the attention of several chemists. Parmentier

has found it in a fetid, fat, and coally substance. Cornet has observed its oleaginous nature. Girard-

God-Chantrans, in 1804, announced, that it contained also a free, fixed acid, which is supposed to be of a peculiar nature.

This discovery, announced to the Institute in the autumn of that year, induced Mr. Vauquelin and me to undertake a full examination of this degenerated vegetable matter.

It is well known, that the smut is in fact a corruption of the grain, which exhibits within the husk of the seed, instead of a farinaceous substance, a black, greasy, stinking powder, the most decided and dangerous characteristic of which is its being capable of infecting other grains by contact, and imparting to them the property of propagating smutty wheat. It is known too, that washing with lime and alkalis is the most certain method of removing its contagious property, and preventing the disease from being reproduced, which it constantly is, if this practice, now generally employed by all judicious farmers, be neglected.

The smut, on which we made our experiments, was given to us by Mr. Girod-Chantrans.

Triturated in an agate mortar, and separated from the husk, the smut imparted to hot alcohol a yellowish green colour; and, without communicating to it any character of acidity, exhibited only about a hundredth part of its weight of a deep green oily matter, as thick as butter, and acrid as rancid grease.

Ether separated from it the same oil.

After this action of alcohol, the smut retained both its greasy feel, and filthy smell. Lixivated with five times its weight of boiling water, it gave it a brown red colour, a fetid smell, a soapy quality, and a very decided acidity.

This acid, examined by many various appropriated re-agents, exhibited all the properties of the phosphoric.

On lixiviating pure smut, not previously treated by alcohol, with boiling distilled water, this liquor, which was perceptibly acid, being saturated with potash, gave a precipitate of animal matter, mixed with chrystallized ammoniaco-magnetism phosphate, and every proof of an alkaline phosphate. These experiments therefore confirm the existence of free phosphoric acid in smut, known by its fixedness, its insolubility in alcohol, its solubility in water, its precipitation by lime, &c.

After the aqueous infusion had been precipitated by potash, it held in solution a fetid animal matter, resembling in colour, smell, and the phenomena exhibited by its precipitation with various re-agents, that are found in water in which the gluten of wheat has putrefied.

After having undergone the action of alcohol and water successively, the smut of wheat still retained both its fetid smell and greasy feel. Distilled on an open fire it afforded a third of its weight of water impregnated with acid acetate of ammonia; nearly a third of a deep brown, concrete oil, much resembling adipocere in its form, consistence, and fusibility by a gentle heat; and 0.23 of a coal, which, being incinerated, left one gramme ($15\frac{1}{2}$ grs.), being a hundredth part of the original smut, of white ashes, three fourths of which were phosphate of magnesia, and one fourth phosphate of lime.

We examined the smut with its husk, to compare it with that which had been deprived of it, but we did not find difference enough to ascribe to the bran that covers it

any decided influence on its analysis.

From our examination, the leading results of which have just been given, we conclude, that the smut of wheat contains,

1. A green, butyraceous, fetid, and acrid oil, soluble in hot alcohol or ether, composing near a third of its weight, and imparting to it its greasy consistence.

2. A vetego-animal substance, soluble in water, insoluble in alcohol, and precipitating most of the metallic salt, as well as galls. It composes rather less than a fourth of the smut, and is perfectly similar to what comes from putrified gluten.

3. A coal, amounting to one fifth of its quantity, which gives a black colour to the whole mass; and is an evidence, as it is the product, of a putrid decomposition; a part which it acts equally in mould, and in all the remnants of putrified organic compounds.

4. Free phosphoric acid, scarcely constituting more than .004 of the smut, but sufficient to impart to it the property of reddening blue vegetable colours.

Lastly, the phosphates of ammonia, magnesia, and lime, in the proportion of a few thousandths only.

The smut of wheat then is nothing more than a residuum of the putrified grain, which, instead of its original component parts, starch, gluten, and saccharine matter, exhibits only a kind of carbonaceous oily substance, very analogous to a kind of bitumen of animal or vetego-animal origin.

We must here remark, that in our examination of gluten decomposed by putrefaction, we found characters very similar to those of

the smut of wheat; and that the products of the one are so like those of the other, as to render it difficult in certain cases not to confound them together. It requires a man to be well practiced in chemical experiments, to discern the slight differences that exist between these two putrified matters, because these differences consist only in delicate shades, that are not easily perceivable.

Interesting as the results of this analysis may appear, we must confess, there is still a great distance from the knowledge they give us of its nature to that of its cause; and yet more to that of its contagious quality, which is proved by so many experiments, as to leave no room for the slightest doubt. We must own too, that these results while they indicate the smut to be the residuum of putrified farina, do not entirely agree with the ideas of philosophical agriculturists, who consider this disease as the necessary product of contagion; since it thus seems natural to presume it arises from putrid decomposition, which may proceed from any other circumstance as well as a communicated germe.

The same results lead us equally to infer, that the putrescency, which necessarily precedes the formation of the smut in all cases, whether it depend on contagion, or arise spontaneously, attacks particularly the gluten; and precedes, indeed prevents, the formation of the starch: since we know positively, that this fecula, no traces of which are found in the smut of wheat, suffers no alteration from that sceptic process, which so powerfully attacks the glutinous substance."

NEW METHOD FOR PRESERVING FRUITS WITHOUT SUGAR.

[From Transactions of the Society of Arts, &c.]

“THE bottles I chiefly use for small fruit, such as gooseberries, currants, cherries, and raspberries, are selected from the widest necked of those used for wine, or porter, as they are procured at a much cheaper rate than what are generally called gooseberry bottles. Having got them properly cleaned, and the fruit ready picked (which should not be too ripe), fill such of them as you intend doing at one time, as full as they will hold, so as to admit the cork going in, frequently shaking the fruit down whilst filling. When done, fit the corks to each bottle, and stick them lightly in, so as to be easily taken out when the fruit is sufficiently scalded, which may be done either in a copper, or large kettle, or saucepan over the fire, first putting a coarse cloth of any sort at the bottom, to prevent the heat of the fire from cracking the bottles: then fill the copper, or kettle, with cold water sufficiently high for the bottles to be nearly up to the top in it: put them in sideways to expel the air contained in the cavity under the bottom of the bottle; then light the fire if the copper is used, taking care that the bottles do not touch the bottom, or sides, which will endanger their bursting; and increase the heat gradually until it comes to about one hundred and sixty, or one hundred and seventy degrees, by a brewing thermometer, which generally requires about three quarters of an hour. For want of such an instrument it may be very well

managed by judging of the degree of heat by the finger, which may be known by the water feeling very hot, but not so as to scald it. If the water should be too hot, a little cold may be added to keep it of a proper temperature, or the fire may be slackened. When it arrives at a sufficient degree of heat, it must be kept at the same for about half an hour longer, which will at all times be quite enough, as a longer time, or greater heat, will crack the fruit.

During the time the bottles are increasing in heat, a tea kettle full of water must be got ready to boil as soon as the fruit is sufficiently done. If one fire only is used, the kettle containing the bottles must be removed half off the fire, when it is at the full heat required, to make room for boiling the water in the tea kettle. As soon as the fruit is properly scalded, and the water boiling, take the bottles out of the water one at a time, and fill them within an inch of the cork with the boiling water out of the tea-kettle. Cork them down immediately, doing it gently, but very tight, by squeezing the cork in, but you must not shake them by driving the cork, as that will endanger the bursting of the bottles with the hot water; when they are corked, lay them down on their side, as by this means the cork keeps swelled, and prevents the air escaping out: let them lie until cold, when they may be removed to any convenient place of keeping, always observing to let them lie on

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their side until wanted for use. During the first month or two after they are bottled, it will be necessary to turn the bottles a little round, once or twice a week, to prevent the fermentation that will arise on some fruits from forming into a crust, by which proper attention, the fruit will be kept moist with the water, and no mould will ever take place. It will also be proper to turn the bottles a little round once or twice in a month afterwards.

Having laid down the method of preserving fruit without sugar, in as clear and concise a manner as possible, I will recapitulate the whole in a few words, which may be easily remembered by any person. Fill the bottles quite full with fruit. Put the corks in loosely. Set them in a copper, or kettle of water. Increase the heat to scalding for about three quarters of an hour; when of a proper degree, keep at the same half an hour longer. Fill up with boiling water. Cork down tight. Lay them on their side until wanted for use.

It may be said as an additional reason, as well as cheapness, for using wine, or porter bottles, instead of gooseberry, that there is a difficulty of obtaining them, even at any price, in some parts of the country; and indeed they are equally useful for small fruit, and answer the purpose quite as well, excepting the little inconvenience of getting the fruit out when wanted for use, which may be easily done by first pouring all the liquor out into a bason, or any other vessel, and then with a bit of bent wire, or small iron meat skewer, the fruit may be raked out. Some of the liquor first poured off serves to put into the pies, tarts, or puddings, instead of water, as it is strongly

impregnated with the virtues of the fruit, and the remainder may be boiled up with a little sugar, which makes a very rich and agreeable syrup.

In confirmation of the foregoing assertions, I now produce twenty-four bottles as samples, containing twelve different sorts of fruit, viz. apricots, rhubarb, gooseberries, currants, raspberries, cherries, plumbs, Orlean plumbs, egg plumbs, damsons, Siberian crabs, and green gages—which have all been preserved in the manner above described.

In order to diversify the degree of heat, and time of continuance over the fire, I have done some in one hundred and ninety degrees, and continued them in it for three quarters of an hour: from which experiments it is evident, that the heat is too powerful, and the time long, as the fruit by this degree and continuance is rendered nearly to a pulp.

In the summer of 1807 I preserved ninety-five bottles of fruit, the expense of which (exclusive of bottles and corks), was 1*l.* 9*s.* 5½*d.*; but having some fruit left, it will not be right to judge them at a higher rate than 1*l.* 9*s.*; and allowing 5*s.* for the extra coals consumed in consequence of my not having a conveniency of doing more than seven or eight at a time, and this being done at fourteen different times, it will amount to 1*l.* 14*s.* the average cost of which is nearly 4½*d.* per bottle, exclusive of the trouble of attending them. But if we estimate their value in the winter season at 1*s.* the bottle, this being in general as low or lower than the market price, they will produce 4*l.* 15*s.*; but losing one bottle by accident, it reduces it to 4*l.* 14*s.*, leaving a net profit of 3*l.*

on ninety-four bottles; being a clear gain of nearly two hundred per cent.

Another great advantage resulting from this statement will appear by making it an article of store for shipping, or exportation; and I shall submit a few ideas tending to promote such a beneficial object, by doing it in large quantities; for which purpose sufficiently extensive premises must be fitted up, with a proper number of shelves, one above another, at a distance of about five inches.

The vessel for scalding the fruit in should be a long wooden trough of six, eight, or ten feet in length, two or three in breadth, and one in

depth, fitted with laths across to keep the bottles upright, and from falling one against another; this trough of water to have the heat communicated to it by steam, through a pipe from a closed boiler at a little distance. The boiling water, wanted to fill the bottles with, may be conveyed through a pipe and cock over the trough, by which arrangement, many hundreds of bottles might be done in a short time. It may be prudent to observe, that this idea is only speculative, not having been actually practised, but at the same time seems to carry with it a great probability of success, and worthy the experiment."

REPORT made to the FRENCH INSTITUTE ON M. DELAROCHE'S MEMOIR ON the AIR-BLADDER OF FISHES. By G. CUVIER.

[From the Memoirs of the National Institute.]

"THE mathematical and physical class instructed Messrs. Lacépède, Vauquelin, and myself, to render an account of a memoir by M. Francis Delaroche on the air-bladder of fishes.

As several naturalists have been of late employed in directing their attention to the organ which is the object of this memoir, and to its functions, we do not think it will be improper to preface our report by a historical view of what has been said on the subject; a recapitulation for which M. Delaroche himself has furnished us with ample materials.

The air-vessel of fishes is too remarkable, it strikes the eye too forcibly on the first opening of the animal, and differs too much from every other organ, not to awaken the attention of naturalists; but,

like most objects in comparative anatomy, it has long produced more conjectures and hypotheses than exact observations and experimental researches.

Rondelet confined himself to the observation, that it existed more constantly in fresh than in salt-water fishes, and that it probably serves to assist them in swimming.

Marcus Aurelius Severinus risks an opinion that the air of this vessel was produced along with the animal; which proves that he had never perceived any communication with it outwards.

Gauthier Needham (in 1668) was the first who entered into more detailed inquiries, and inserted them in a book, where no one would expect to find them; namely, *De formato foetu*. Adopting the

the general idea of the utility of this bladder for swimming, he explained how flat fish are enabled to do without it; he described the two tunics of this organ, as well as the varieties of its form, and the origin of the canal of communication. He shews that the vessels are more abundant than are requisite for its own nutrition; that it is probable that some organic function is exercised by them, and that the blood contained in them has some connexion with the air: but judging that it would be difficult for the air to penetrate into it from without, in certain fishes, through substances which fill the stomach, he conjectured that this fluid is secreted there, and that it proceeds from thence into the stomach, where it assists in the process of digestion: he even points out the red bodies which operate this secretion in the snake.

Borelli explained in detail, in 1676, the method in which the bladder is used in swimming. He observed that fishes, whose air-bladders burst, remain at the bottom of the water, as well as most of those which are naturally deprived of it; and concludes that it is intended to render the body of the fish sufficiently light to be in equilibrium with the water: he added, that by compressing the bladder, or by abandoning the air which it contains, to its elasticity, the fish can augment or diminish its total specific gravity, and assist it in its ascent or descent. He supposed, that the canal which establishes in certain fishes a communication between the air-bladder and the stomach, must be a method of varying or renewing the quantity of air.

To conclude: he has neither described the varieties of the struc-

ture of the bladder, nor determined in what fishes it exists, and those in which it is wanting.

Redi resumes the observations of Needham. He added some details on those fishes which have no air-bladder, and on the red bodies in the interior of several of these organs. He also stated, that he had in vain sought for the canal of communication in certain sea-fishes; but he thought that it was his fault, and this opinion of the generality of the existence of the canal has even reigned to the present time among some others. These remarks of Redi are still to be found in a book entitled, *Observations sur les Animaux vivans contenus dans les Animaux vivans*. Florence, 1684.

Ray and Willoughby, without making fresh inquiries, and without deciding on the manner in which the air is introduced into the bladder, disputed the idea of this air being used in digestion, and reduced the bladder to its employment in swimming, according to the ideas of Borelli. They insisted on the muscles peculiar to certain vessels, and mistook for them the red bodies in the interior of some others.

The same opinion on the use of the bladder was supported by Preston, by Perrault, and by Petit. Perrault made the important observation, that there are fishes without any canal, and that it is in the latter that the red bodies are found, which are intended for the separation of the air. He added, that in those which have a canal, the air does not issue from the bladder, although it be compressed; a remark too much generalized.

Petit, on the contrary, thought he had discovered in the canal of the carp, valvuli which admit of the air

air escaping, but not of returning.

Notwithstanding the observation of Perrault, Artedi still ascribed to all bladders a canal destined, according to him, for the introduction of air: but, with the exception of Borelli's, there is no opinion given respecting their use.

It is the same case with Gouan, Bloch, and a variety of other authors, who add nothing in other respects to the details previously acquired.

But, admitting in its fullest extent this chief employment of the air-bladder, we might still suppose it to have accessory uses, and in particular we must defer giving any opinion as to the origin of the air which it contains.

This was the conduct pursued by Vicq d'Azyr in 1773. He imagined that the air originated in the stomach, from whence it entered charged with nutritive particles, into the air-bladder, in order to be absorbed by the vascular system. He was followed by Broussonet in this idea under some modifications.

Erxleben entertained the same idea respecting the propagation of the air; but as to its uses he followed the common opinion.

These three anatomists seem to have been ignorant that the communication between the stomach and the air-bladder is frequently wanting.

This is strongly insisted upon by Kœhlreuter in an anatomical description of the lotus. After having ascertained the defect in the canal, and that a number of other fishes are also without it, and after having described the organization of the red bodies, he maintained that the air is separated from the blood in the bladder. He thought his system was new, not having

read the writings of Perrault and Needham.

Leske adopted the opinion of Kœhlreuter.

Monro, who in his work on fishes, ought to have thrown a great deal of light on this subject, has added but little to what was known before on this subject. He made the same distinction with Perrault between bladders with secretory red bodies which have no canal, and those which have a canal and want these bodies; but he does not mention any French anatomist; perhaps because he had never read any of their works on the subject.

He remarked that the genus *anguilla* formed an exception to the rule, from having the canal and red bodies. With respect to the other parts of the question, he did not decide upon the use of the bladder; and merely inquired, if fishes could not, in swallowing, distinguish the bubbles of air from the mass of water, and make them pass in preference into this organ.

M. Fischer, now professor at Moscow, published in 1795, at Leipsic, a particular dissertation on this subject; in which, after having given an extract of the writings of his predecessors, and having communicated his own observations on the carp and the tench, he hazarded the opinion, that the air-bladder, independent of its uses for motion, is also a supplementary organ of respiration, destined to absorb the oxygen from the atmospheric air contained in water, as the gills are destined, according to him, to absorb the oxygen of the water itself, by decomposing it.

M. de Lacepede supposes, that certain fishes may at least fill their bladder with the gases resulting from the decompositions which
their

their respiration occasions. He thought that it was frequently hydrogen with which it was filled, and he mentioned tenches in which he had collected precisely this kind of gas.

Finally, M. Duvernoy, editor of that part of Cuvier's comparative anatomy which has for its object the air-bladder of fishes, adopted, in common with M. Cuvier, the opinion of Needham and Kœhlreuter, that the air is produced in the bladder by secretion. He also described some of the organs of this secretion in fishes not before observed; but, from too much precipitation, he forgot to advance the principal argument, founded on the absence of all canal of communication in many species. He concludes, from the absence of the vessel itself, in fishes belonging indiscriminately to all descriptions of families, and even to genera the other species of which are furnished with it, that its functions cannot be very essential to life. By comparing its proportional volume with the nature of the movements of every fish, and by examining the supplementary means granted to those who have it not, and the various effects of those means, he arrives at the conclusion, that it is essentially an organ connected with loco-motion.

He expresses his astonishment at the discordance between the analysis hitherto given of the air contained in this bladder; some like M. Fourcroy, having found hardly any thing but azote; others, like M. Configliati, having found so much as 40.0 of oxygen; while others, like Mr. Broadbelt, found the quantity variable in the same kind of fish according to circumstances. M. Duvernoy concludes with suggesting, that chemists should in-

quire into the causes and limits of these variations; a precise knowledge of which could alone decide a great number of the questions in dispute.

Messrs. Geoffroy and Vauquelin on one hand, and M. Biot on the other, have recently made a great part of the experiments which were pointed out as requisite by M. Duvernoy.

M. Biot, in his first voyage to Ivica, examined the air in the bladder of several fishes of the Mediterranean, and found that it varied from pure azote up to 87.0 of oxygen, with very little carbonic acid, and without any hydrogen; and that in general the oxygen is the more abundant, in comparison to the azote, as the fish comes from a greater depth, although the water at these great depths does not contain purer air than that which is at the surface.

He also made the curious observation, that in fishes suddenly drawn from a great depth, the air-bladder ceasing to be compressed by the enormous column of water which bore upon it, is dilated so suddenly, that it tears the intestines, and is ejected from the mouth. As to the origin of the air contained in it, he seems to think it has been secreted.

The experiments of Mess. Vauquelin and Geoffroy, published by M. Biot, confirm his own on the subject, so far as the fishes on which they were made, living in our fresh waters and at very small depths, gave but very little oxygen. They agree also with other more ancient experiments of M. Fourcroy, who had found nothing in the bladder of the carp but azote almost pure, and with the analysis made by M. Humboldt of the air in the bladder of the gymnotus electricus,

electricus, which consisted of 96.0 of azote, and 40.0 of oxygen.

Such was the whole of our knowledge of the air-bladder of fishes when M. Delaroche read his memoir to the Institute. But in order to complete the series of facts which are necessary to guide us in forming an opinion of his theory, we think it right to say a few words upon two memoirs published since.

One of these, by M. Geoffroy, refers to an earlier memoir, in which he developes, anatomically, the means by which the fish compresses or relaxes its bladder, in order to descend or ascend. Indeed, he says at the same time, in the introduction of his memoir, that the bladder is by no means an organ of motion by itself; but this is because he thought that those who regarded it as such, suppose that it is dilated by the increase of the air which it contains, and *vice versa*, an opinion which no person seems to have entertained; for it is always by the action of the muscles that it has been made to be compressed or dilated: on this subject, therefore, M. Geoffroy is really of the opinion of Borelli, which is the commonly received idea.

The other memoir to which we have alluded, is by Messrs. Humboldt and Provençal, and has for its chief object the respiration of fishes; but these authors have naturally been led to examine the air in the swimming-bladder.

They operated upon river fishes, and found the air variable in composition from 99.0 of azote to 87.0. They have observed as much as 5.0 of carbonic acid. They made some tench respire hydrogen, and yet their air-bladders when examined exhibited none; by keep-

ing them in oxygen, however, the proportion of the oxygen in the bladder was somewhat increased. On removing the bladder from them, they were not prevented from producing, by their respiration, the ordinary effects upon the atmosphere; they were even able to raise themselves in the water, although they generally remained at the bottom of the vessel.

Thus, in the numerous works we have analyzed, almost every possible hypothesis has been proposed, attacked, or defended, and examples have been given of almost all the combinations of organization that could be devised. M. Delaroche had only therefore to examine these organizations a little further, in order to reduce them to general rules, and to weigh over again the arguments advanced for or against every hypothesis.

Let us see how he has acquitted himself of this task.—

His residence at Ivica, Formentero, and on the coast of Spain, with Messrs. Biot and Arrago, having furnished him with opportunities of examining a great number of Mediterranean fishes not to be seen any where else, and their air-bladders having chiefly occupied his attention, he continued his inquiries after his return, on our common fresh and salt water fishes: hence he has furnished upwards of fifty particular descriptions of the air-bladders of as many species of fish, several of which have not hitherto been described. These descriptions added to those which former authors had given of some species which M. Delaroche could not find, form the materials of his present memoir; and he has placed his own at the end of the work, as so many proofs of the

the general propositions which he lays down.

In the body of the memoir he treats successively of the anatomical structure of the air-bladder, of the nature of the sources of the air which it contains, and of the functions which it exercises.

He speaks, in the first place, of its existence, and gives a list of those fishes which have it, and of those in which it is wanting. The results of this list, which adds several species to those which had already been adduced with respect to this subject, are nearly the same which had been already drawn; namely, that the existence or non-existence of the bladder does not correspond with the other affinities of organization which connect fishes with each other.

He afterwards speaks of the various situations of the bladder, of its variation in size, and in the configuration of its tunics (an article in which he compares the internal membrane to the serous membranes); and finally, of the particular muscles which it has in several fishes; and he gives a more detailed description of these muscles than is to be found in the comparative anatomy of M. Cuvier.

What he says on the subject of the canal of communication also presents a great number of novelties. On this head he has made some very acute remarks, and has ascertained that this canal is wanting in the greater part of sea fishes. He did not find it in any of the jugular or thoracic classes, which compose nearly three-fourths of the total species of fishes with which we are acquainted. The lectures on comparative anatomy had assigned this canal to the *uranoscope*, which is a jugular; but according to M. Delaroche, the

authors of this work have made new inquiries, and found that they were mistaken.

M. Delaroche has studied in a particular manner the red bodies with which certain bladders are furnished. He found them, like Perrault and Monro, in all those which want the canal of communication, and in the *anguilla* genus although furnished with this canal.

Our author gives a very detailed description of these bodies, in the *gadi*, the *trigli*, the *perches*, some *labri* and *holocentres*; as well as in the *atherina rhipsetus*, the *blenurus physis*, the *orphi* or *esox belonus*, and lastly in the eel and the conger.

We have verified that part of the descriptions which refers to the species with which we are familiar, or could procure, and have found them generally correct.

It appears to us, however, that M. Delaroche grants too great a homogeneity to the inner texture of these bodies. One of our number, who, along with M. Duvernoy, recently made some inquiries in order to verify this point of anatomy, found these bodies in the larger fishes formed of lobes flattened like ribands, placed almost parallel on each other, very distinct from one another, by clearly marked intervals, and proceeding obliquely in various directions from the proper membrane to the internal membrane of the bladder.

The distribution given by M. Delaroche of the vessels which issue from the red bodies of the eel, and from those which return to it, has also been verified, and found correct; but he passes rather too hastily over the red body itself, which is also divided into flakes, separated by intervals, which are frequently found filled with blood.

In short, Messrs. Cuvier and Duvernoy

Duvernoy think they have found strongly marked relations in the red bodies of fishes with the cavernous bodies; but their inquiries posterior to the memoir of M. Delaroche, are only brought forward here that the Institute may not be ignorant of what has been done on this interesting subject. A full account of their experiments will shortly appear.

The author of the present Memoir speaks only from the lectures in comparative anatomy as to certain branching air-bladders, entirely peculiar to one species of fish. M. Cuvier, who had described them when on the sea-coast, where he had no books from which to determine the species of the fish, thought it was the *perca labrax*; but other naturalists, besides himself, have since sought for it in vain in the fish so called in the systems of ichthyology. By unexpected good fortune, the true fish which was the subject of observation was brought to Paris some time ago, and proved to belong to the rare species denominated by M. Lacepede *cheilodiptera*, or sea eaglet, but which ought to be placed among the centropommes, beside the *labrax*.

The bladder of this fish, unique of its kind, will be presented to the Institute along with a description by M. Duvernoy, and which will be more minute than any hitherto given under less advantageous circumstances.

In his analysis of the air contained in the bladder, M. Delaroche confirms, in general, the experiments of M. Biot; adding, that besides the various degrees of depth at which fishes live, there are other causes which concur to vary the proportions of the gases in their air-bladders. Thus, of

two fishes caught on the same spot, one has given 5.00 and the other scarcely 40 of oxygen. M. Delaroche also rectifies the idea that M. Biot had given of the eruption of the bladder from the mouth, in fishes drawn up suddenly from great depths, when he says that a rupture of the bladder then takes place, and that it is the air which forces up the stomach to the mouth. As to the source of this air, our author (like Needham, Perrault, Monrō, Kœhlreuter, Duvernoy and Cuvier,) thinks it is produced in the interior of the bladder by a secretion of an unknown nature, of which the red bodies seem to be the organs in such fishes as have these bodies.

It is unnecessary to ask for a proof of this opinion in fishes which have no exterior canal, for in them it is demonstrated by itself. We might also fairly extend it to those which have a canal and red bodies, like the eel.

But in those which want the red bodies, as we must admit a new kind of exhalation, the analogy no longer takes place completely; and perhaps many persons would be equally willing to have recourse to the aerial canal, insomuch as it always exists in this description of fishes. As fishes of the same family frequently have the air-bladder, and others want it, it is probable that its functions may be supplied by different means.

M. Delaroche, without considering that question as at all decided; nevertheless supports the argument of analogy, from the difficulty which any given gas would have in many species, in penetrating into the bladder by the canal; from the still greater difficulty which it would have of arriving pure; particularly when it was requisite

quisite for it to pass through the substances contained within the stomach ; and, lastly, from the difficulty of knowing, from whence, or by what mechanism, the fish could procure it from nature, in order to introduce it into its bladder at great depths, where it is so frequently and so long retained.

The habit in which physiologists are of seeing matters of every kind come out of the blood by secretions, renders them on the contrary very easy as to this kind of production ; and in fact there is no real difficulty on the subject, since azote and oxygen, which compose the air in the bladder, exist abundantly in the blood.

But it may be asked ; if the gas be exhaled or separated from the blood, wherefore does it vary so much when the greater part of the other secretions are so constant in their nature ? Above all, how can the animal body, so greedy of oxygen in general, exhale it so precisely at depths where it has the fewest methods of getting it from the external medium ? M. Delaroche, who puts these questions, admits that it is difficult to answer them satisfactorily.

He afterwards proceeds to the uses of the air-bladder.

From its absence in many fishes taken indiscriminately from all classes, he concludes, with the authors of the comparative anatomy, that it cannot hold an important place in the vital functions ; and this makes him reject all necessary connexion between the air-bladder and respiration.

He would have even been inclined to conclude, from its solute stoppage in the greater number of fishes that are furnished with it, that it could not in general be employed in the absorption of any

useful matter, in the excretion of any injurious substance, nor even in the production of a substance to be employed in some other part of the body ; but that it is solely by itself as the air-vessel, and in its quality of considerably capacity, filled with a light elastic substance that it may be useful to the fish.

Now in this respect it can only have a mechanical use, either with respect to its station or movement.

M. Delaroche in the first place ascertains its use in the station, and admits that it serves to render the whole fish specifically lighter, and to place it in equilibrium with the water in which it is suspended.

This is one part of the most generally received opinion ; but it is clear that the necessity of the bladder for this sole purpose is any thing but demonstrated. Nature would rather have made all fishes of the same gravity as the water, as she has done with those fishes that have no bladders : thus, the common opinion is also composed of two other integrant parts equally necessary with the former. The one is, that the fish can compress as it pleases, to a certain extent, its bladder, or dilate it ; which we prove by the peculiar muscles with which the bladder is furnished in certain fishes, and by the mediate action which the sides and the muscles of the abdomen exercise on it in all those which have it.

M. Delaroche also adopts this second part of the common opinion.

He thinks even that it is in this way the fish supplies, when it rises, the pressure exercised on its bladder in deep water by the column of water above it. Were it otherwise, the air, which would be no longer compressed, would be too much dilated, and would render the fish

too light, or even produce some rupture, as happens to fishes drawn suddenly from great depths.

But who is there who is not aware, that this, on the part of nature, would be correcting very clumsily a defect which she might have refrained from introducing at all into her work? She had only to give no air-bladder at all to fishes; and we have seen that she need not to have done so to place them in equilibrium with the water: in that case she would no longer have required the apparatus of compression, which has been supposed as serving only to correct the inconvenience of an useless bladder.

Thus we are of opinion that the third, and the chief part of the commonly received opinion, in reality resolves the problem: we mean that part of it which says, that the bladder is placed there to assist the fish in ascending and descending, according as it is compressed and dilated; and we confess that we do not see why M. Delaroche should reject this use of the bladder, to which the two others are, in our opinion, merely accessories.

That the fish has strength sufficient to enable it to descend, clearly results from what M. Delaroche himself admits; for if the fish, which ascends 30 feet for example (and it is difficult not to believe that many fishes can ascend that height without any accident), if, we say, such a fish has sufficient strength to compress its bladder, by means of its muscles, to the same degree that the 30 feet of water formerly did, it is evident that a similar fish, supposed to be in equilibrium at the height to which the former ascended, will also have sufficient strength to com-

press its bladder, as much as would the addition of a weight of 30 feet, and that there would result from such a compression or diminution of volume more than sufficient to force it to descend.

M. Delaroche, against this most essential part of the vulgar opinion, advances only a single objection, which he borrows from M. Fischer: this is, that the variation of specific gravity which may result, with respect to the total body of fishes, from the variations of the volume of the bladder being very small, the ascents or descents, which are the consequences of it, could not but be very slow: but, besides, the circumstance of these variations never having been yet measured, no person has ever said that the bladder cannot be aided in this function by other organs. Those fishes which have no bladder, ascend and descend very well, although, other circumstances considered, rather more tardily. Now those which have a bladder have, in addition, all the organs employed by those which have none, and they can use them like the others.

One difficulty which we have sometimes heard started, is to ask how a fish, when it wishes to ascend from the bottom of the sea, can find strength to raise up by means of its sides, or generally of its integuments, the enormous column of water which lies upon it, in order to permit its bladder to dilate. But as this vessel is already, by its compression, in equilibrium with the water which presses it, the least effort is sufficient; and even this effort, however small, is nevertheless necessary, that the fish may only rise a few feet by the means which are common to it with the fishes without a bladder: instantly its bladder, being less compressed,

compressed, will be too much dilated; and, according to M. Delaroche's own experiments, it will carry it precipitately upwards, and burst its entrails if it does not speedily close it. This second objection is refuted therefore like the former.

Thus we think we ought to adhere to the ideas of Borelli, as to the use of the air-vessels of fishes; but although we differ in opinion from M. Delaroche on this point, we do not the less regard his

memoir as worthy of approbation, from the great number of new and correct observations which it contains, as to the anatomical structure of the bladder, as well as upon the nature and sources of the air which it contains; and we have the honour to recommend that it should be printed among the memoirs of *Savan Etrangers*.

Signed, LACEPEDE,
VAUQUELIN,
CUVIER."

ACCOUNT OF SEVERAL VARIETIES OF BRITISH MARBLE, PRODUCED
FROM THE BABICOMB QUARRY, NEAR TEIGNMOUTH, IN DEVON-
SHIRE.

[By Mr. J. P. HUBBARD, Picket Street, Temple Bar.]

" SIR,

A GREEABLY to the wishes of the Society, expressed in their list of premiums, stating that they were desirous to encourage the marble of the quarries of this country, I herewith send fifty various specimens, all arising from one quarry, named the Babicomb quarry, in my possession, situate in the parish of St. Mary Church, near Teignmouth, in the county of Devon, and adjoining the sea. I beg leave to observe, that, though an attempt to introduce this article has once before failed, yet I am confident, if I should be so fortunate as to have my exertions seconded in such a way as the nature of the concern requires, a considerable benefit would ultimately result to the country at large, as well as to myself. The numberless obstacles which I had to encounter, during a period of two years, arising from heavy expenses, and local prejudices, must have damped my exertions, if I had not resolved at the onset to give it

a decided trial. Perhaps no period could have offered so eligible as this, for the advantage of the enterprize, owing to the present enormous prices of foreign marble. I am sorry to see, daily, many unaccountable prejudices arise against most articles of the produce of our own country; but I hope time will remove them. It would be presumption in me, to attempt to vie with the finer articles of continental production in this line, but it cannot be denied, that the application of the marbles now produced will be useful, economical, ornamental, and worthy of encouragement. The advantages which would arise to the country at large from a general introduction of this article are very evident, and if I can be favoured with the patronage and support of the Society of Arts, &c. towards accomplishing such object, they would meet with the warmest acknowledgements of many individuals beside myself.

I have already prepared a great variety

variety of articles, such as chimney pieces, slabs, &c. of very large dimensions, of these marbles, which are now ready for inspection; and which will show, that I have entered into this business on an extensive scale.

I subscribe myself with great respect, Sir,

Your obedient servant,

JOHN P. HUBBARD.

The specimens of marble sent by Mr. Hubbard to the Society were each of them eight inches high, six inches broad, and one inch thick, and polished on one face; such are the dimensions pointed out by the advertisement of the Society, in order that a regular range of British marbles may be fixed round the Society's Great Room, to shew to the public what our quarries can produce. Mr. Hubbard's marbles were, on being received, referred to the consideration of their Committee of Chemistry, and the following additional information obtained respecting the quarry and produce thereof, viz.—

That the quarry which produced the different specimens is twelve acres in extent.

That marble similar to each specimen can be distinctly procured.

That Mr. Hubbard had then in his possession columns of red marble, eight feet long, and two feet diameter, and believed that they might be got ten feet long, and five feet diameter, and that blocks of other kinds might be got of large sizes.

That he had at that time slabs six inches long, by three feet six inches in width.

That the quarry is close to the sea, and a part thereof covered by it at high water, and that he can

load vessels direct from the quarry, having made a wharf for that purpose.

That the quarry is situate about four miles from Teignmouth, and was first opened about sixteen years ago, and was afterwards neglected; but that it has been now worked by him for two years.

That the marble is harder in quality as the mine goes deeper, and that some part of it rises fifty feet from the sea.

That the sale price is about half that of foreign marble of similar appearance; that the general price is now about four shillings per superficial foot, and will probably be so reduced as to be delivered at three shillings in London.

That it will take a finer polish than any other marble found in the kingdom.

That he supposes from sixty to one hundred workmen may be employed in the quarry next autumn.

That chimney pieces made from this marble are not injured from the heat of fire applied near to them, nor liable to crack from alternate sudden changes of heat and cold.

That great part of the refuse stones of the quarry will burn to lime, and that such lime is of superior quality to any other on that coast.

The Society having taken into consideration the circumstance of Mr. Hubbard's having carried their views to so great an extent, and of his undertaking being likely to prove highly advantageous to this country, voted to him their Gold Medal, although no specific premium had been ever offered by them for coloured British Marbles.

Mr. Hubbard afterwards presented the Society with ten more specimens

specimens from his quarry, which with two specimens of Devonshire marble presented by Lord Clifford, and two others presented by Mr. W. Coles, have been framed along the surbase of the Society's Great Room; where it is also intended

to place such other marbles, the produce of the British Empire, as may be presented to them, with references to each sample, that the public may know whence each kind can be procured.

REPORT MADE TO THE PHYSICAL AND MATHEMATICAL CLASS OF THE
FRENCH INSTITUTE, ON A BURNING MIRROR, PRESENTED TO
THE CLASS.

[By M. PEYARD.]

M. PEYARD, who has just published an elegant translation of the Works of Archimedes, was naturally led to reflect on the means, which that great geometrician is said to have employed, to burn the fleet of Marcellus before Syracuse. Both the ancients and the authors of the middle age relate, that he used a burning mirror; but none of them enter into the particulars sufficiently, to give us an accurate idea of his process. Anthemius, who built the church of Saint Sophia at Constantinople in the sixteenth century, and appears to have been a very intelligent architect, invented an assemblage of plane mirrors, to produce the same effect as that of Archimedes. Since that time Kircher, who perhaps was unacquainted with the works of Archimedes, thought of something similar. Lastly, Count de Buffon constructed a burning mirror, composed of a hundred and sixty-eight plane glasses: and the experiments, in which he employed it, are well known. These three processes, which come to the same thing, are attended with serious inconveniences.

For a mirror to reflect to one and the same point the rays of the

sun, considered as parallel to each other, the reflecting surface must make part of that of a paraboloid of revolution, the axis of which is parallel to the rays of light, and its focus their point of union. If this mirror were composed of a number of plane mirrors of moderate size, the plane of each must be parallel to a tangent of the paraboloid at the point where it is cut by the corresponding radius vector. Now in consequence of the motion of the sun the position of the axis of the paraboloid changes with some rapidity. If the form of the mirror therefore be unchangeable, the whole must turn round the focus with the sun, which appears to be impracticable: and if the parts that compose it be moveable, independent of each other, each of these parts must turn so as to be constantly perpendicular to the right line, that bisects the angle formed by the solar ray and the corresponding radius vector.

It appears difficult to give the component mirrors the movement in question by means of a machine, less perhaps because the change in the sun's declination would render this machine complex, than because the expansion of the metallic rods

rods, used for imparting the motion, would change in a perceptible and unforeseen manner the direction of the component mirrors, and because the action of the machinery would impart to each mirror a vibratory motion, that would keep the image in perpetual agitation.

There remains no other reasonable way, therefore, of composing a burning mirror of several plane mirrors, but by entrusting each of the latter to an individual, charged with keeping it in the proper position for reflecting the image of the sun to a determinate point, varying the position agreeably to the motion of the sun. But M. Peyrard justly observes, that this method is attended with an inconvenience which must prevent its success. It is easy indeed for a single person, attentive and conveniently placed, to direct to a point the image of the sun reflected from a mirror of moderate size, and to keep it there, notwithstanding the motion of the luminary. The difficulty would not be very great for three or four persons to do this at the same time. But if fifty, a hundred, or two hundred persons were employed to form a burning focus in this manner, as none of them could distinguish the image he sent from that sent by another, if one of the images alone should deviate from the focus, each of the co-operators would try whether it were his, and hence would arise an agitation and disorder, that would prevent the focus from being formed. This inconvenience M. Peyrard purposes to remove in a very ingenious way, by furnishing each of his mirrors with an apparatus not very complex, which we shall proceed to describe.

A small telescope supported on a
1809.

stand, and furnished with two wires crossing each other in the focus of the glasses, may easily be directed to the point to which the image is to be conveyed. In this direction it is fixed by two screws. This telescope, without changing its direction, is moveable on its axis between two collars, and can be kept in any position round this axis by another screw. On this telescope is fixed the mirror, which it carries with it when it turns round its axis, and which, independent of this motion, is capable of turning round another axis, perpendicular to that of the telescope. The telescope is to be turned on its axis, till the axis of the mirror is perpendicular to the plane formed by the incident and reflected rays, and in this position it is to be fixed by a screw. Lastly, the mirror is to be turned on its axis, till the reflected rays are parallel to the axis of the telescope, and then the image of the sun must strike the object at which the telescope points.

The two movements here mentioned are executed one after the other, and are capable of considerable precision. With respect to the first, when the axis of the mirror is perpendicular to the plane of the incident and reflected rays, the edge of the frame, which is perpendicular to the axis of the mirror, throws its shadow in a plane parallel to the incident and reflected rays, and consequently parallel to the axis of the telescope. This shadow, therefore, or the boundary of the light reflected from the mirror, will cut an index projecting from the telescope in a right line at the same distance from the axis of the telescope, as the edge of the frame is.

Accordingly, this right line being traced on the face of the index,
R
dex,

dex, for executing the first motion, it is sufficient to turn the telescope on its axis, till the shadow of the frame coincides with the right line on the index, which may be done with considerable precision.

For the second movement, it is clear, that, when the mirror is so placed as to have its reflected rays parallel to the axis of the telescope, if in the axis of the mirror, and close to the edges of the frame, a little line of the silvering be removed, the want of silvering will produce a shadow that will fall on the middle of the right line of the index. This middle point being previously marked on the index, to execute the second movement it suffices to turn the mirror on its own axis, till the shadow of the unsilvered stroke falls on this point: which may be done with the same precision as the former movement.

Thus we see, that every person employed, however great the number, may direct the image he produces to the point assigned for the

focus, without troubling himself about what is done by the others, and without being disturbed by their operations. It may be observed too, that the motion of the sun in its diurnal axis, is not so rapid, but that one person might attend to ten mirrors near each other, and keep them in the right position, which would greatly diminish the trouble and expense of the process.

We are of opinion, therefore, that M. Peyrard has carried the construction of burning mirrors, composed of several plane mirrors, to a degree of perfection that it had not before acquired, and appears to us to merit the approbation of the class.

Done at the Palace of the Arts,
3d of August, 1807.

CHARLES,
ROCHON,
MONGE, Reporters.

The class approves this report, and adopts its conclusions.

DELAMBRE, Perpetual Sec.
Paris, 4th August 1807.

POETRY.

ODE TO THE NEW YEAR, 1809.

[BY HENRY JAMES PYE, Poet Laureat.]

FULL orb'd in equinoctial skies,
 When the pale moon malignant rides,
 And bids the howling tempest rise,
 And swells the ocean's briny tides,
 Dreadful against the sounding shore,
 The winds and waves tumultuous roar,
 The torrent-braving mound in vain
 The stormy inroad would restrain,
 The surges with resistless sway
 Force o'er the labour'd mole their way,
 Scorn every weak resource of human toil,
 O'erwhelm the peopled town, and waste the cultur'd soil.

But when, by native fences barr'd
 From billowy rage, the happier land,
 And rocky cliffs for ever stand
 To the wide water'd coast a guard,
 Such as on Vecta's southern steep,
 Look down defiance on the raging deep,
 Such as on Dover's breezy down,
 On Gallia's hostile borders frown,
 Though billows urging billows roar,
 And idly beat against the shore,
 While from the heights sublime the swain
 Mocks the vain efforts of the foaming main,
 Till Nature bids the deluged surge subside,
 Hush'd is the tempest's voice, and reflux rolls the tide.

So o'er Europa's ravaged plain,
 We saw the torrent of wild war
 Resistless spread its iron reign,
 And scatter ruin wide and far ;
 The embattled wall, the warlike band,
 Vainly the Tyrant's course withstand ;
 Before the impious sons of Gaul
 The legions fly, the bulwarks fall ;

Yet Britain's floating castles sweep
 Invasion from her subject deep,
 Yet by her rocks secure from harm,
 Securer by her patriot arm,
 Iberia turns the battle's tide,
 Resists the injurious Tyrant's pride,
 While freely floating in the ambient sky,
 Sacred to Freedom's cause, their mingled ensigns fly:

ODE FOR HIS MAJESTY'S BIRTH-DAY.

[By the same.]

WHILE Europe with dejected eye
 Beholds around her rural reign,
 Whilom of Peace the fair domain,
 The scene of desolation lie ;
 Or if with trembling hope she cast
 Her look on hours of glory past,
 And burn again with virtuous fame,
 Her ancient honours to reclaim,
 And brace the corslet on her breast.
 And grasp the spear, and wave the crest ;
 Yet lies her course through war's ensanguined flood ;
 Yet must she win her way thro' carnage and thro' blood.

Ah ! happier Britain, o'er thy plain
 Still smiling Peace and Freedom reign ;
 And while thy sons with pitying eye,
 Behold the fields of ruin round them lie ;
 The storms that shake each neighbour realm with fear,
 Like distant thunder roll upon the ear :
 They bless the halcyon hour that gave
 To rule a people free and brave ;
 A patriot monarch all their own,
 Their swords his bulwark, and their hearts his throne.
 And while to this auspicious day
 The Muse devotes her tributary lay,
 A nation's vows in choral Pæan join
 And consecrate to Fame a " verse as mean as mine."

Yet not to selfish thoughts confin'd
 Are the warm feelings of a virtuous mind ;
 The royal Patriot, while he views
 Peace o'er his realms her bliss diffuse,
 Mourns for the sorrows that afflict mankind.
 Go forth, my sons, he cries ; my Britons, go,
 And rescue Europe from her ruthless foe.

Behold

Behold in arms Austria's imperial Lord ;
 Behold Iberia draw the avenging sword ;
 O let with their's your mingled ensigns fly,
 In the great cause of injur'd Liberty !
 Go forth, my sons, and to the world declare,
 When suffering Freedom calls, Britannia's arms are there.

WYOMING.

[From Mr. CAMPBELL's Gertrude of Wyoming.]

I.

ON Susquehana's side, fair Wyoming !
 Although the wild-flower on thy ruin'd wall
 And roof-less homes a sad remembrance bring
 Of what thy gentle people did befall,
 Yet thou wert once the loveliest land of all
 That see the Atlantic wave their morn restore.
 Sweet land ! may I thy lost delights recal,
 And paint thy Gertrude in her bowers of yore,
 Whose beauty was the love of Pennsylvania's shore !

II.

Delightful Wyoming ! beneath thy skies,
 The happy shepherd swains had nought to do,
 But feed their flocks on green declivities,
 Or skim perchance thy lake with light canoe,
 From morn till evening's sweeter pastime grew,
 With timbrel, when beneath the forest brown,
 Thy lovely maidens would the dance renew :
 And aye those sunny mountains half-way down
 Would echo flagelet from some romantic town:

III.

Then, where of Indian hills the daylight takes
 His leave, how might you the flamingo see
 Disporting like a meteor on the lakes—
 And playful squirrel on his nut-grown tree :
 And every sound of life was full of glee,
 From merry mock-bird's song, or hum of men,
 While heark'ning, fearing nought their revelry,
 The wild deer arch'd his neck from glades, and then
 Unhunted, sought his woods and wilderness again.

IV.

And scarce had Wyoming of war or crime
 Heard but in trans-atlantic story rung,
 For here the exile met from ev'ry clime,
 And spoke in friendship ev'ry distant tongue :

Men from the blood of warring Europe sprung,
 Were but divided by the running brook ;
 And happy where no Rhenish trumpet sung,
 On plains no sieging mine's volcano shook,
 The blue ey'd German chang'd his sword to pruning-hook.

V.

Nor far some Andalusian saraband,
 Would sound to many a native roundelay.
 But who is he that yet a dearer land
 Remembers over hills and far away ?
 Green Albyon ! what though he no more survey
 Thy ships at anchor on the quiet shore,
 Thy pellocks rolling from the mountain bay,
 Thy lone sepulchral cairn upon the moor,
 And distant isles that hear the loud Corbrechtan roar !

VI.

Alas ! poor Caledonia's mountaineer,
 That want's stern edict e'er, and feudal grief,
 Had forc'd him from a home he lov'd so dear !
 Yet found he here a home, and glad relief,
 And plied the beverage from his own fair sheaf,
 That fir'd his Highland blood with mickle glee ;
 And England sent her men, of men the chief,
 Who taught those sires of Empire yet to be,
 To plant the tree of life,—to plant fair freedom's tree !

VII.

Here was not mingled in the city's pomp
 Of life's extremes the grandeur and the gloom ;
 Judgment awoke not here her dismal tromp,
 Nor seal'd in blood a fellow creature's doom,
 Nor mourn'd the captive in a living tomb.
 One venerable man, beloved of all,
 Suffic'd where innocence was yet in bloom,
 To sway the strife that seldom might befall,
 And Albert was their judge in patriarchal hall.

VIII.

How rev'rend was the look, serenely aged,
 He bore, this gentle Pennsylvanian sire,
 Where all but kindly fervors were assuag'd,
 Undimm'd by weakness' shade, or turpid ire ;
 And though amidst the calm of thought entire,
 Some high and haughty features might betray
 A soul impetuous once, 'twas earthly fire
 That fled composure's intellectual ray,
 As Ætna's fires grow dim before the rising day.

IX.

I boast no song in magic wonders rife,
 But yet, oh Nature! is there nought to prize,
 Familiar in thy bosom-scenes of life?
 And dwells in daylight truths salubrious skies
 No form with which the soul may sympathise?
 Young innocent, on whose sweet forehead mild
 The parted ringlet shone in simplest guise,
 An inmate in the home of Albert smil'd,
 Or blest his noonday walk—she was his only child.

X.

The rose of England bloom'd on Gertrude's cheek—
 What though these shades had seen her birth, her sire
 A Briton's independence taught to seek
 Far western worlds; and there his household fire
 The light of social love did long inspire,
 And many a halcyon day he liv'd to see
 Unbroken, but by one misfortune dire,
 When fate had rest her mutual heart—but she
 Was gone—and Gertrude clim'd a widow'd father's knee.

HENRY WALDEGRAVE.

[From the Same.]

“**A**ND nought within the grove was seen or heard,
 But stock-doves plaining through its gloom profound,
 Or winglet of the fairy humming bird,
 Like atoms of the rainbow fluttering round;
 When lo! there enter'd to its inmost ground
 A youth, the stranger of a distant land;
 He was, to weet, for eastern mountains bound;
 But late th' equator suns his cheek had tann'd,
 And California's gales his roving bosom fann'd.

XIII.

A steed, whose rein hung loosely o'er his arm,
 He led dismounted; ere his leisure pace,
 Amid the brown leaves, could her ear alarm,
 Close he had come, and worshipp'd for a space
 Those downcast features: she her lovely face
 Uplift one on, whose lineaments and frame
 Were youth and manhood's intermingled grace:
 Iberian seem'd his boot—his robe the same,
 And well the Spanish plume his lofty looks became.

XIV.

XIV.

For Albert's home he sought—her finger fair
 Has pointed where the father's mansion stood.
 Returning from the copse he soon was there;
 And soon has Gertrude hied from dark green wood;
 Nor joyless, by the converse, understood
 Between the man of age and pilgrim young,
 That gay congeniality of mood,
 And early liking from acquaintance sprung:
 Full fluently convers'd their guest in England's tongue.

XV.

And well could he his pilgrimage of taste
 Unfold,—and much they lov'd his fervid strain,
 While he each fair variety retrac'd
 Of climes, and manners, o'er the eastern main:
 Now happy Switzer's hills,—romantic Spain,—
 Gay lillied fields of France,—or, more refin'd,
 The soft Ausonia's monumental reign;
 Nor less each rural image he designed,
 Than all the city's pomp and home of human kind.

XVI.

Anon some wilder portraiture he draws;
 Of Nature's savage glories he would speak,—
 The loneliness of earth that overawes,—
 Where, resting by some tomb of old Cacique,
 The lama-driver on Peruvia's peak,
 Nor living voice nor motion marks around;
 But storks that to the boundless forest shriek,
 Or wild-cane arch high flung o'er gulph profound,
 That fluctuates when the storms of El Dorado sound.—

XVII.

Pleas'd with his guest, the good man still would ply
 Each earnest question, and his converse court;
 But Gertrude, as she ey'd him, knew not why
 A strange and troubling wonder stopt her short.
 “ In England thou hast been,—and, by report,
 “ An orphan's name (quoth Albert) may'st have known:
 “ Sad tale!—when latest fell our frontier fort,—
 “ One innocent—one soldier's child—alone
 “ Was spar'd, and brought to me, who lov'd him as my own.—

XVIII.

“ Young Henry Waldegrave! three delightful years
 “ These very walls his infant sports did see;
 “ But most I lov'd him when his parting tears
 “ Alternately bedew'd my child and me:

“ His

" His sorest parting, Gertrude, was from thee :
 " Nor half its grief his little heart could hold :
 " By kindred he was sent for o'er the sea,
 " They tore him from us when but twelve years old,
 " And scarcely for his loss have I been yet consol'd."—

XIX.

His face the wand'rer hid,—but could not hide
 A tear, a smile, upon his cheek that dwell ;—
 " And speak, mysterious stranger !" (Gertrude cried)
 " It is !—it is !—I knew—I knew him well !
 " 'Tis Waldegrave's self, of Waldegrave come to tell !"
 A burst of joy the father's lips declare ;
 But Gertrude speechless on his bosom fell :
 At once his open arms embrac'd the pair,
 Was never group more blest, in this wide world of care.

XX.

" And will ye pardon then (replied the youth)
 " Your Waldegrave's feigned name, and false attire ?
 " I durst not in the neighbourhood, in truth,
 " The very fortunes of your house enquire ;
 " Lest one that knew me might some tidings dire
 " Impart, and I my weakness all betray ;
 " For had I lost my Gertrude, and my sire,
 " I meant but o'er your tombs to weep a day,
 " Unknown I meant to weep, unknown to pass away.

XXI.

" But here ye live,—ye bloom,—in each dear face
 " The changing hand of time I may not blame ;
 " For thee, it hath but shed more reverend grace,
 " And here, of beauty perfected the frame ;
 " And well I know your hearts are still the same,—
 " They could not change—ye look the very way,
 " As when an orphan first to you I came.
 " And have ye heard of my poor guide, I pray ?
 " Nay wherefore weep we, friends, on such a joyous day ?

XXII.

" And art thou here ? or is it but a dream ?
 " And wilt thou, Waldegrave, wilt thou leave us more ?
 " No, never ! thou that yet dost lovelier seem
 " Than aught on earth—than ev'n thyself of yore—
 " I will not part thee from thy father's shore ;
 " But we shall cherish him with mutual arms,
 " And hand in hand again the path explore,
 " Which every ray of young remembrance warms,
 " While thou shalt be my own with all thy truth and charms."

XXIII.

At morn, as if beneath a Galaxy
 Of over-arching groves in blossoms white,
 Where all was od'rous scent and harmony,
 And gladness to the heart, nerve, ear, and sight :
 There if, oh gentle love ! I read aright,
 The utterance that seal'd thy sacred bond,
 'Twas listening to these accents of delight,
 She hid upon his breast those eyes, beyond
 Expression's pow'r to paint, all languishingly fond.

XXIV.

" Flow'r of my life, so lovely, and so lone !
 " Whom I would rather in this desert meet,
 " Scorning, and scorn'd by fortune's pow'r, than own
 " Her pomp and splendor lavish'd at my feet !
 " Turn not from me thy breath, more exquisite
 " Than odours cast on heav'n's own shrine—to please—
 " Give me thy love, than luxury more sweet,
 " And more than all the wealth that loads the breeze,
 " When Coromandel's ships return from Indian seas."

XXV.

Then would that home admit them—happier far
 Than grandeur's most magnificent saloon
 While, here and there, a solitary star
 Flush'd in the dark'ning firmament of June ;
 And silence brought the soul-felt hour, full soon,
 Ineffable, which I may not pourtray ;
 For never did the Hymenean moon
 A paradise of hearts more sacred sway,
 In all that slept beneath her soft voluptuous ray."

DEATH OF ALBERT AND GERTRUDE.

[From the same.]

XXVII.

" **B**UT short that contemplation—sad and short
 The pause to bid each much-lov'd scene adieu !
 Beneath the very shadow of the fort,
 Where friendly swords were drawn, and banners flew ;
 Ah ! who could deem that foot of Indian crew
 Was near ?—yet there, with lust of murd'rous deeds,
 Gleam'd like a basilisk, from woods in view,
 The ambush'd foeman's eye—his volley speeds,
 And Albert—Albert—falls ! the dear old father bleeds !

XXVIII.

XXVIII.

And tranc'd in giddy horror Gertrude swoon'd ;
 Yet, while she clasps him lifeless to her zone,
 Say, burst they, borrow'd from her father's wound,
 These drops ?—Oh God ! the life-blood is her own ;
 And falt'ring, on her Waldegrave's bosom thrown—
 " Weep not, O Love !"—she cries, " to see me bleed—
 " Thee, Gertrude's sad survivor, thee alone—
 " Heaven's peace commiserate ; for scarce I heed
 " These wounds ;—yet thee to leave is death, is death indeed.

XXIX.

" Clasp me a little longer, on the brink
 " Of fate ; while I can feel thy drear caress ;
 " And when this heart hath ceas'd to beat—oh ! think,
 " And let it mitigate thy woe's excess,
 " That thou hast been to me all tenderness,
 " And friend to more than human friendship just.
 " Oh ! by that retrospect of happiness,
 " And by the hopes of an immortal trust,
 " God shall assuage thy pangs—when I am laid in dust !

XXX:

" Go, Henry, go not back, when I depart,
 " The scene thy bursting tears too deep will move,
 " Where my dear father took thee to his heart.
 " And Gertrude thought it ecstasy to rove
 " With thee, as with an angel, through the grove
 " Of peace,—imagining her lot was cast
 " In heav'n ; for ours was not like earthly love.
 " And must this parting be our very last ?
 " No ! I shall love thee still, when death itself is past.—

XXXI.

" Half could I bear, methinks, to leave this earth,—
 " And thee, more lov'd, than aught beneath the sun,
 " If I had liv'd to smile but on the birth
 " Of one dear pledge ;—but shall there then be none,
 " In future time—no gentle little one,
 " To clasp thy neck, and look, resembling me ;
 " Yet seems it, ev'n while life's last pulses run,
 " A sweetness in the cup of death to be,
 " Lord of my bosom's love ! to die beholding thee !"

XXXII.

Hush'd were his Gertrude's lips ! but still their bland
 And beautiful expression seem'd to melt
 With love that could not die ! and still his hand
 She presses to the heart no more that felt.

Ah heart ! where once each fond affection dwelt,
 And features yet that spoke a soul more fair.
 Mute, gazing, agonizing as he knelt,—
 Of them that stood encircling his despair,
 He heard some friendly words ;—but knew not what they were.

XXXIII.

For now, to mourn their judge and child, arrives
 A faithful band. With solemn rites between,
 'Twas sung, how they were lovely in their lives,
 And in their deaths had not divided been.
 Touch'd by the music, and the melting scene,
 Was scarce one tearless eye amidst the crowd :—
 Stern warriors, resting on their swords, were seen
 To veil their eyes, as pass'd each much lov'd shroud—
 While woman's softer soul in woe dissolv'd aloud.

XXXIV.

Then mournfully the parting bugle bid
 Its farewell o'er the grave of worth and truth ;
 Prone to the dust afflicted Waldegrave hid
 His face on earth ;—him watch'd in gloomy ruth,
 His woodland guide : but words had none to sooth
 The grief that knew not consolation's name :
 Casting his Indian mantle o'er the youth,
 He watch'd, beneath its folds, each burst that came
 Convulsive, ague-like across his shuddering frame !

XXXV.

“ And I could weep ;”—th' Oneyda chief
 His descant wildly thus begun ;
 “ But that I may not stain with grief
 “ The death-song of my father's son !
 “ Or bow this head in woe ;
 “ For by my wrongs, and by my wrath !
 “ To-morrow Aerouski's breath,
 “ (That fires yon heav'n with storms of death),
 “ Shall light us to the foe :
 “ And we shall share, my Christian boy !
 “ The foeman's blood, the avenger's joy !

XXXVI.

“ But thee, my flow'r, whose breath was giv'n
 “ By milder genii o'er the deep,
 “ The spirits of the white man's heav'n
 “ Forbid not thee to weep :—
 “ Nor will the Christian host,
 “ Nor will thy father's spirit grieve
 “ To see thee, on the battle's eve,
 “ Lamenting take a mournful leave
 “ Of her who lov'd thee most :

“ She

“ She was the rainbow to thy sight !
 “ Thy sun—thy heav’n—of lost delight !—

XXXVII.

“ To-morrow let us do or die !
 “ But when the bolt of death is hurl’d,
 “ Ah ! whither then with thee to fly,
 “ Shall Outalissi roam the world ?
 “ Seek we thy once-lov’d home ?—
 “ The hand is gone that cropt its flowers :
 “ Unheard their clock repeats its hours !
 “ Cold is the hearth within their bow’rs !
 “ And should we thither roam,
 “ Its echoes, and its empty tread,
 “ Would sound like voices from the dead !

XXXVIII.

“ Or shall we cross yon mountains blue,
 “ Whose streams my kindred nation quaff’d ;
 “ And by my side, in battle true,
 “ A thousand warriors drew the shaft ?
 “ Ah ! there in desolation cold,
 “ The desert serpent dwells alone,
 “ Where grass o’ergrows each mould’ring bone,
 “ And stones themselves to ruin grown,
 “ Like me, are death-like old.
 “ Then seek we not their camp—for there—
 “ The silence dwells of my despair !

XXXIX.

“ But hark, the trump !—to morrow thou
 “ In glory’s fires shalt dry thy tears :
 “ Ev’n from the land of shadows now
 “ My father’s awful ghost appears,
 “ Amidst the clouds that round us roll ;
 “ He bids my soul for battle thirst—
 “ He bids me dry the last—the first—
 “ The only tears that ever burst
 “ From Outalissi’s soul ;
 “ Because I may not stain with grief
 “ The death-song of an Indian chief.”

FEMALE EDUCATION.

[From Mrs. WEST's "Mother."]

NOR yet content with precepts, patient form;
 By firm example and restrictions wise,
 Early begun and patiently pursu'd;
 What these stern times require, an upright mind:
 First school thyself, nip in thy heart the germ
 Of preference; 'twill cover all the soil,
 Prolific as the Indian fig, whose shade
 Conceals a caravan. Nor quicker shoots
 The tall banana, when the torrent rains
 Have drench'd some tropic-region, parch'd and bare,
 Tho' with redundant vegetable powers
 Indu'd, than in the mother's doting heart
 Springs the foul creeper, rank partiality;
 Foul, when impregnating the noxious blasts
 Of envy, on a neighbouring plant it sheds
 Mildew and gnawing cancer; but most foul,
 When with inebriating fumes, it clouds
 Maternal justice, robing in the guise
 Of supernatural worth one idol child,
 Or from some weeping innocent purloins
 Its dower of equal love, Rise, prescient Muse!
 Rend time's dark mantle, and to folly shew
 Years of reproach, of sorrow, and of shame,
 Fulfilling slow their melancholy round,
 And scourging her with scorpions. Shew the god
 Of her fond dotage, writh'd by torturing pain
 Owing its mortal lineage, while it sinks
 To an untimely grave, and there inhumes
 Her peace, her hope. Or, shew it as distain'd
 By stubborn guilt, glorying in infamy,
 Nursing the poisonous asp ingratitude
 To sting a mother's heart. Such bitter fruits
 Spring from indulgence; bodies rack'd with pain
 By early gluttony, by numbing sloth
 Contracted into joyless lassitude;
 Or to thy vigils, Dissipation, forc'd
 An infant-worshipper, at the gay shrine
 Inhaling atrophy, or phthisis pale,
 Mortal as the feign'd upas, and more vast
 Their desolation, which no skilful son
 Of Pæan can arrest, no healing plant
 Med'cine, no charm subdue: death to the joys
 Of many a parent, many a lover; death
 To the fair blossom of expanding worth.

Or, grant the vigorous well knit frame resist
 These strong assailments, dread their fiercer ill,
 An uncorrected mind ; passions indulg'd
 To mad extravagance ; manners untrain'd
 To courtesy or tenderness ; contempt
 Of others : love of self ; obstinate pride,
 Wedded to swart and purblind ignorance,—
 A wayward witch, who throws her random shafts
 At virtue and at knowledge. Such thy boy :
 Thy girl a forward vixen pertly train'd
 To point, or ogle, or, with mimic state
 To glide around the room a lady Bell
 In birthday pomp complaining that she fears
 Her beauty is too killing. Does she sing
 To please the captain ? Does the moppet tell
 She danc'd with a young lord, and won his heart ?
 Gives she prompt answers ? Does she never run
 To hide her blushes in her mother's arms
 Oppress'd by observation or by praise ?
 And shall this babe-coquette at the dessert
 Preside sole orator, affront each guest,
 Banish improving converse, carve the ice,
 Engross the sweetmeats, and, with copious draughts,
 Quaff Mattery's deleterious cup ? Away !
 Give me the rod and scourge the brat to school.

But from yon lonely corner lead to view
 That poor neglected girl, esteem'd a dolt.
 Mamma indeed objects, “ 'Tis awkward, plain,
 “ Inelegant, ill-dress'd.” Shame on her pride
 Who by the idle vanities of dress
 Denotes contempt or kindles self-regard.
 Bring me this slighted child. She trembles, weeps,
 Shrinks from my proffer'd hand, looks round alarm'd,
 Steals on my face one timid glance and smiles
 To see a friendly aspect. Half assur'd
 She speaks, then pauses. She has much to tell ;
 But fears lest her untutor'd tongue should drop
 Some coarse expression, or that nurse will chide
 If troublesome. See by my side all day
 Patient she stands, while gentle offices
 Speak her strong sense of kindness. Mother, turn !
 Regard this blameless claimant ; though her eye
 Beam not the lustrous ray of beauty, see
 Intelligence and gratitude. Her mien
 Is homely, but thy forming hand may give
 Polish'd deportment ; or if stubborn joints
 Frustrate thy plastic skill, through this harsh mould
 Th' unfading charms of a celestial mind
 May dart unenvied beauty. On this arm,

Brown and misshapen, mayst thou lean ; this breast
 May hide thy tears and blushes, when the shame
 Of that fair wanton, taught by thee to run
 The maze of folly, ends in guilt her course
 Begun in vanity, and bids thee beg
 For death, in bitterness of self-reproach ;
 While this kind nurse, by ministrations wise,
 And sweet endearments, piously withstands
 Thy prayer, and on thy thorny pillow sheds
 The healing opiate of consoling love.

But who comes now, with philosophic air,
 Sententious, ripe in judgment, tho' in size
 A pigmy. 'Tis a tiny Socrates,
 Now call'd a child of reason. It will run,
 If you will tell it the inherent laws
 Of motion. It will say its task, but first
 Convince it language is the privilege
 Of man. 'Tis fixed and mute, if you attempt
 The sternness of command ; for well it knows
 Its high prerogatives, equal and free.
 And it can prate of rights, bid you assign
 Your motives of decision, school your faults,
 And argue you to silence. Gracious Heaven !
 Transport me o'er the mountains of the moon,
 Where Afric breeds her monsters ; bid me cast
 In Norway's seas my anchor, on the back
 Of some vast kraken slumbering ; let me hear,
 Mid Portobello's putrid swamps, the hiss
 Of serpents vast, whose pois'nous volumes roll
 O'er many a rood, rather than chain me down
 To this portent, this fearful augury
 Of unexampled times—when early train'd
 To disputation, to confess no law
 But its own choice, no light except the beam
 Of reason dim in all, in some extinct,
 And where most bright, dubious and changeable,
 The educated sceptic comes prepar'd
 To wage Typhæan war with heaven ; nor asks
 His unrepented sins and furious lusts
 To goad him on ; bewilder'd, to the gulph
 Of Infidel despair. These are not times
 Of Pagan ignorance : we halt not now
 Between the koran and the cross, nor seek,
 By metaphysic's darkling guidance, Him
 Whom clearly shewn we worship, and confess,
 By dedication and external forms,
 To be our sovereign. Rebels we may be,
 Or subjects liege ; not aliens, free to chuse
 Roman or Spartan statutes, or to stand

In the Lyceum, or the porch, or seek,
 From Zoroaster or Confucius sage,
 A God of fire, or moral institutes.

Mothers, attend ! a hand divine hath bless'd
 Your infants, and a heavenly voice proclaim'd
 Them meet for full beatitude. But say,
 Did Jewish matrons to Messiah bring
 Young reasoning scribes, in argument acute,
 Who cavill'd with their Saviour, nor received
 His benediction, till they knew what good
 Extended hands convey ; or docile babes,
 Humble and gentle, with affections warm,
 Prompt to ingenuous faith and guileless trust ?
 Such is the sweet simplicity that marks
 The faithful christian : such the character
 On which, as on a bank of violets,
 The soul reposes, weary and displeas'd
 With long pursuit of earth-born vanities.

MARIA.

[From the same.]

COME, strew with flowers the bridal-path, and wake
 The village-bells, to tell with merry peals
 Maria's nuptials, lovely, chaste, and young ;
 Nobly descended, royally allied,
 A widow'd mother's comforter and friend,
 Of Waldegrave's stem fair scion to ingraft
 Its blood and virtues on some honor'd house,
 Worthy such high affiance. At the shrine
 Of sweetness, goodness, truth, Love bow'd, nor long
 Was Hymen absent ; but the cypress bud
 Mix'd in his roseate wreaths. One year revolves :
 The village bells now toll the funeral knell ;
 The groves of Beeston, that with pride receiv'd
 Their angel-habitant so late, now hang
 Their solemn umbrage o'er the cavalcade
 Of death, slow pacing where Maria erst
 Shone like a vernal morn. Ah ! what remains
 Of hopes so brilliant, of deserts so high,
 To sooth the widow'd bridegroom, or console
 A matron vers'd in woe ? Yon infant-boy—
 Whose birth records his mother's death, the heir
 Of these domains, beneath whose shade he sports—

Inquires why he is pitied, and what means
Maternal love, a tie to him unknown.

So when the fall'n Emathian race through Rome
Walk'd in captivity, a dolorous band,
Young Perseus, laughing in his nurse's arms;
Seem'd to enjoy the triumph. Ruthless hearts,
Who mock'd a king in chains, yearn'd to behold
The sportive babe, unconscious of his wrongs,
Enjoy the pageantry which told his doom,
A slave, an orphan, not Achaia's lord.

THE DIFFUSION OF CHRISTIANITY.

[From the same.]

O BRITAIN, native isle, whose triumphs warm
My breast with ardour, for whose wrongs I mourn
And with a woman's weakness shuddering hear
Thy dangers! Queen of ocean! with regret
I must accuse thee, tho' thy victor-flag
Flames like a steady cynosure to shew
A darkling world the port where liberty,
Honour, and truth, their votive altars guard
Bears not that banner, in its ample field,
The Christian symbol? Christian are thy hosts,
And on the word of God thy Christian crown
Recumbent lies. Why then like Carmel's churl,
Withhold thy living waters, and thy bread
Of life from hungry strangers, subject now
To all thy laws, except thy laws divine?

Art thou the nation maritime, beheld
Long since by Amos' son in vision clear,
Beyond the Ethiopic floods, with wings
Protecting other lands, and sending forth
Her fragile vessels over distant seas?
And shall the awful mandate to collect
Israel oppress'd and scatter'd and to bear
The converts to their God in Palestine,
Be to thy care intrusted? Sanctify
Thyself for the high mission, and become
In purpose, as in fact, heav'n's minister.

Say, shall thy red-cross standard wave sublime
O'er golden Inde, and Satan's idol-holds
Feel not its influence? Still the blazing pyres
Proclaim where superstition immolates

The self-devoted. Still in Ganges flood
 Besotted myriads seek for health, and life,
 And pardon, and beatitude. On earth
 The Fakir lies, and still, with eyelids shorn,
 Looks at the sun on his meridian throne,
 And deems his tortures virtue. Britain, say,
 Where are thy temples, wherethy white-rob'd priests,
 Thy bloodless altars, and thy sacred creeds?
 Hast thou no true ablution to despoil
 Ganges of worship? no pure rite, no prayer,
 No adjuration, from his trance of pain
 To rouse the Fakir? no consoling chant
 To tell the widow her Redeemer lives,
 And snatch her from the flames? O teach those groves,—
 Rich with redundant beauty, fragrance, fruit,
 And shade salubrious, all the swelling pomp
 Of Asiatic foliage,—teach those groves
 To echo other sounds than Bramah's name,
 And other incantations! Be the songs
 Of Sion heard from fertile Malabar
 To sandy Arcot, to the beauteous shores
 Of rich Orissa, and Bengal, profuse
 Of all life needs, save that for which we live.
 O spread those echoes o'er the peaceful seas,
 Peopled with barks innumerable! Let them sound
 In every spicy isle, and palm-crown'd bay,
 Where commerce spreads her tent, or stays her oar.
 Wherever waves thy banner, bid it shade
 The house of God; where'er thy tongue is heard,
 O let it, like an angel's trumpet, tell
 Messiah's kingdom of good-will and peace,
 Friendship and truth to man; to God the rites
 Of firm obedience, gratitude, and love.
 Exalt the full hosanna, till it soars
 High as the lofty mountains of the moon,
 And wakens Afric's savage genius, there
 In gloomy state reposing; bid him yield
 His bloody banquets, and his demon-gods;
 Call on the tawny Moor to lay aside
 That sensual creed which binds him to afflict,
 And hate, the Christian. Teach Canadian tribes,
 Who wander vast Columbia's northern wilds,
 To hope a better heav'n than that they paint,
 Areskou's gift beyond the lakes, compos'd
 Of forests stor'd with game, and sunny plains.
 But chief, O guilt! O grief! lasting disgrace
 To thy renown to say, 'tis yet undone!
 Teach those whom Afric's vices, or thine own,
 Have made thy captives—those who ceaseless toil
 Beneath a burning sun, to swell thy marts

With produce exquisite ; those most forlorn,
 Whom thou hast rest of country, and disjoin'd
 From nature's ties ; O teach those men of woes,
 The God thou worshippest. So when they sit,
 Their labour ended, musing on the plains
 Of Guinea, or on Benin's cooling palms,
 Till sorrow kindles vengeance, and they dare
 To brave, by crime, the tortures which they deem
 Will send them to the realms so lov'd, so mourn'd—
 Visions more mild may rise, list'ning the themes
 Of heavenly mercy, and eternal rest
 To deep affliction. Down their glossy cheeks
 Shall stream the tears of piety and joy,
 Dews of an ardent heart, producing now
 Far nobler passions than revenge and hate.

O Britain ! cleanse thy glory from this stain,
 Of nations most illustrious ! Blush to hear
 That Lusitanian and Castilian kings
 First labour'd in their colonies to fix
 The canker'd scion they mistaking deem'd
 The tree of life ; whilst thou, in whose bless'd soil
 It grows redundant, check'd by counsels cold,
 Selfish, or atheistical, hast giv'n
 To the true plant no culture, nor convey'd
 Its fruit to distant regions. Hangs the sword
 Of desolation o'er thy head, scarce staid
 From hewing down thy greatness ? Are thy sons
 Torn from the walks of peace, thy treasure drain'd
 And thy vast genius circumscrib'd with laws
 Abhorrent to thy nature, but impos'd
 By the stern times, and wilt thou not inquire
 How thou hast sinn'd to Heav'n, nor weep th' offence.
 Of cold indifference in a sacred cause ?

Yet, Britain, know, whether thy hallow'd hand
 Shall usher in the dawn, or, fearful still,
 Curtain its beams, the sun of truth shall rise,
 Shine from the orient, light those scatter'd isles,
 Which, like green emeralds, sparkle on the breast
 Of the Pacific and Atlantic seas,
 Blazing from Greenland to the southern pole,
 O'er Apalachian mountains, on the top
 Of Andes, on the high Riphœan rocks,
 O'er the long chain which shoots from Caucasus
 To sea-wash'd Anadir ; where India's hills
 Stop the monsoon's strong current, to the heights
 Of Ethiopia, where the Nile collects
 Her waters inexhaustible, shall sound
 The echoing lauds of universal man
 Hymning one common God, the God of peace,
 And purity, and fellowship, and love.

THE BATTLE OF THE TITANS.

[From Mr. ELTON's Translation of Hesiod.]

HE'ceas'd. The gift-dispensing Gods around
 Heard, and in praise assented : nor till then
 So burn'd each breast with ardour to destroy.
 All on that day roused infinite the war,
 Female and male : the Titan Deities,
 The Gods from Saturn sprung, and those whom Jove
 From subterraneous gloom released to light :
 Terrible, strong, of force enormous ; burst
 A hundred arms from all their shoulders huge :
 From all their shoulders fifty heads upsprang
 O'er limbs of sinewy mould. They then array'd
 Against the Titans in fell combat stood,
 And in their nervous grasp wielded aloft
 Precipitous rocks. On th' other side alert
 The Titan Phalanx clos'd : then hands of strength
 Join'd prowess, and display'd the works of war.
 Tremendous then th' immeasurable sea
 Roar'd ; earth resounded : the wide heaven throughout
 Groan'd shattering : from its base Olympus vast
 Reel'd to the violence of Gods : the shock
 Of deep concussion rock'd the dark abyss
 Remote of Tartarus : the shrilling din
 Of hollow trappings, and strong battle-strokes,
 And measureless uproar of wild pursuit.
 So they reciprocal their weapons hurl'd
 Groan-scattering ; and the shout of either host
 Burst in exhorting ardour to the stars
 Of heaven ; with mighty war-cries either host
 Encountering clos'd.

Nor longer then did Jove
 Curb his full power ; but instant in his soul
 There grew dilated strength, and it was fill'd
 With his omnipotence. At once he loos'd
 His whole of might, and put forth all the God.
 The vaulted sky, the mount Olympian, flash'd
 With his continual presence ; for he pass'd
 Incessant forth, and scattered fires on fires.
 Hurl'd from his hardy grasp the lightnings flew
 Reiterated swift ; the whirling flash
 Cast sacred splendour, and the thunderbolt
 Fell : roar'd around the nurture-yielding earth
 In conflagration, far on every side
 Th' immensity of forest crackling blaz'd :
 Yea, the broad earth burn'd red, the streams that mix
 With ocean, and the deserts of the sea.

Round and around the Titan brood of Earth
 Roll'd the hot vapour on its fiery surge;
 The liquid heat air's pure expanse divine
 Suffus'd : the radiance keen of quivering flame
 That shot from writhen lightnings, each dim orb
 Strong though they were intolerable smote,
 And scorch'd their blasted vision. Through the void
 Of Erebus, the preternatural glare
 Spread, mingling fire with darkness. But to see
 With human eye and hear with ear of man,
 Had been as if midway the spacious heaven,
 Hurtling with earth, shock'd—e'en as nether earth
 Crash'd from the centre, and the wreck of heaven
 Fell ruining from high. So vast the din,
 When, Gods encountering Gods, the clang of arms
 Commingled, and the tumult roar'd from heaven.

TARTARUS AND THE FALL OF THE TITANS.

[From the Same.]

HURL'D from their sinewy grasp : with missile storm
 The Titan host o'ershadowing, them they drove
 All-haughty as they were, with hands of strength
 O'ercoming them, beneath th' expanse of earth,
 And bound with galling chains ; so far beneath
 This earth, as earth is distant from the sky ;
 So deep the space to darksome Tartarus.
 A brazen anvil rushing from the sky
 Through thrice three days would toss in airy whirl,
 Nor touch this earth till the tenth sun arose :
 Or down earth's chasm precipitate revolve,
 Nor till the tenth sun rose attain the verge
 Of Tartarus. A fence of massive brass
 Is forg'd around : around the pass is roll'd
 A night of triple darkness ; and above
 Impend the roots of earth and barren sea.
 There the Titanic Gods in murkiest gloom
 Lie hidden, such the cloud-assembler's will :
 There in a place of darkness, where vast earth
 Has end : from thence no egress open lies :
 Neptune's huge hand with brazen gates the mouth
 Has clos'd ; a wall environs every side.
 There Gyges, Cottus, high-soul'd Briareus
 Dwell vigilant, the faithful sentinels
 Of ægis-bearer Jove. Successive there
 The dusky Earth, and darksome Tartarus,

The sterile Ocean and the star-bright Heav'n
 Arise and end, their source and boundary.
 A drear and ghastly wilderness, abhorr'd
 E'en by the Gods ; a vast vacuity :
 Might none the space of one slow-circling year
 Touch the firm soil, that portal enter'd once,
 But him the whirl of vexing hurricanes
 Toss to and fro. E'en by immortals loath'd
 This prodigy of horror. There of Night
 Obscure the dismal dwellings rise, with mists
 Of darkness overspread. Full in the front
 Atlas upholding Heaven his forehead rears
 And indefatigable hands. There Night
 And Day near passing, mutual greeting still
 Exchange, alternate as they glide athwart
 The brazen threshold vast. This enters, that
 Forth issues ; nor the two can one abode
 At once constrain. This passes forth, and roams
 The round of earth ; that in the mansion waits
 Till the due season of her travel come.
 Lo ! from the one the far-discerning light
 Beams upon earthly dwellers ; but a cloud
 Of pitchy blackness veils the other round,
 Pernicious Night, aye leading in her hand
 Sleep, Death's half-brother ; sons of gloomy Night,
 There hold they habitation, Death and Sleep,
 Dread deities ; nor them the shining Sun
 E'er with his beam contemplates, when he climbs
 The cope of heaven, nor when from heaven descends.
 Of these the one glides o'er the gentle space
 Of earth and broad expanse of ocean waves,
 Placid to man : the other has a heart
 Of iron ; in his breast a brazen soul
 Is bosom'd ruthless : whom of men he grasps
 Stern he retains, e'en to immortal Gods
 A foe.

The hollow-sounding palaces
 Of subterraneous Gods there in the front
 Ascend, of mighty Pluto and his queen
 Awful Persephone. A grisly dog,
 Implacable, holds watch before the gates ;
 Of guile malicious. Them who enter there,
 With tail and bended ears he fawning soothes :
 But suffers not that they with backward step
 Repass : whoe'er would issue from the gates
 Of Pluto strong and stern Persephone,
 For them with marking eye he lurks ; on them
 Springs from his couch, and pitiless devours.

There, odious to immortals, dreadful Styx
 Inhabits, reflux Ocean's eldest-born :

She from the Gods apart for ever dwells
 In mansions known to fame, with arching roofs
 O'erhung, of loftiest rock; and all around
 The silver columns lean upon the skies.

THE DIVINITY EVER PRESENT.

[From the Same.]

BUT thou, O Perses! heed the moral strain;
 To justice cleave; from injury refrain.
 For heavy on the poor does injury press,
 And e'en the wealthy bend to the distress,
 And feel the weight of wrong; be this thy trust;
 The better path conducts thee to be just:
 Still in the end shall justice wrong subdue:
 This fools confess from sore experience true.
 With crooked judgments, lo! the oath's dread god
 Avenging runs, and tracts them where they trod:
 Rough are the ways of justice as the sea,
 When man perverted wills the false decree;
 When to and fro the bribe-devourer draws,
 As vile corruption sways, the wrested laws.
 For them who trembling justice force to fly,
 For them whose breath decrees iniquity;
 Invisible their steps the virgin treads,
 And mustering evils gather o'er their heads:
 She with a veiling cloud her form arrays,
 And walks in awful grief the city-ways;
 Her cry ascends; her tear upbraiding falls;
 O'er their stain'd manners, their devoted walls.
 But they who never from the right have stray'd,
 Who as the citizen the stranger aid,
 They and their cities flourish; genial Peace
 Dwells in their borders, and their youth increase:
 Nor Jove, whose radiant eyes behold afar,
 Hangs forth in heaven the signs of grievous war.
 Nor scathe nor famine on the righteous prey;
 Earth foodful teems, and banquets crown the day:
 Rich wave their mountain oaks; the topmost tree
 The rustling acorn fills, its trunk the murmuring bee.
 Burthen'd with fleece their panting flocks: the race
 Of woman, soft reflects the father's face:
 Still flourish they, nor tempt with ships the main:
 The fruits of earth are pour'd from every plain.
 But o'er the wicked race, to whom belong
 The thought of evil and the deed of wrong,

Saturnian Jove, of wide-beholding eyes,
 Bids the dark signs of retribution rise :
 And oft the crimes of one destructive fall,
 The crimes of one are visited on all.
 The god sends down his angry plagues from high,
 Famine and pestilence ; in heaps they die.
 He smites with barrenness the marriage bed,
 And generations moulder with the dead.
 Again in vengeance of his wrath he falls
 On their great hosts, and breaks their tottering walls ;
 Arrests their navies on the watery plain,
 And whelms their strength with mountains of the main.
 Revolve, O kings ! within your inmost thought
 The retribution by his vengeance wrought :
 Invisible the gods are ever nigh,
 Pass though the midst, and bend th' all-seeing eye :
 Who on each other prey, who wrest the right
 Awless of heaven's revenge, are open to their sight.
 For thrice ten thousand holy dæmons rove
 The nurturing earth, the delegates of Jove :
 Hovering they glide to earth's extremest bound,
 A cloud aerial veils their forms around ;
 Guardians of man, their glance alike surveys
 The upright judgments and th' unrighteous ways.

HYMN.

BY ROBERT BURNS.

[From Mr. CROMER's Reliques.]

O THOU Great Being ! what thou art
 Surpasses me to know ;
 Yet sure I am, that known to thee
 Are all thy works below.

Thy creature here before thee stands,
 All wretched and distress ;
 Yet sure those ills that wring my soul
 Obey thy high behest.

Sure Thou, Almighty, canst not act
 From cruelty or wrath ;
 O, free my weary eyes from tears,
 Or close them fast in death !

But

But if I must afflicted be,
 To suit some wise design ;
 Then man my soul with firm resolves
 To bear and not repine !

H Y M N.

[By the Same, from the Same.]

O THOU unknown, Almighty Cause
 Of all my hope and fear !
 In whose dread presence, ere an hour,
 Perhaps I must appear.

If I have wander'd in those paths
 Of life I ought to shun ;
 As something, loudly, in my breast,
 Remonstrates I have done ;

Thou know'st that Thou has formed me
 With passions wild and strong ;
 And list'ning to their witching voice
 Has often led me wrong.

Where human weakness has come short,
 Or frailty stept aside,
 Do thou, All Good ! for such thou art,
 In shades of darkness hide.

Where with intention I have err'd,
 No other plea I have,
 But, Thou art good ; and goodness still
 Delighteth to forgive.

H Y M N.

[By the Same, from the Same.]

WHY am I loth to leave this earthly scene !
 Have I so found it full of pleasing charms !
 Some drops of joy with draughts of ill between :
 Some gleams of sunshine 'mid renewing storms :

Is it departing pangs my soul alarms?
 Or death's unlovely, dreary, dark abode?
 For guilt, for guilt, my terrors are in arms;
 I tremble to approach an angry God,
 And justly smart beneath his sin-avenging rod.

Fain would I say, "Forgive my foul offence!"
 Fain-promise never more to disobey;
 But, should my Author health again dispense,
 Again I might desert fair virtue's way;
 Again in folly's path might go astray;
 Again exalt the brute and sink the man;
 Then how should I for heavenly mercy pray,
 Who act so counter heavenly mercy's plan?
 Who sin so oft have mourn'd yet to temptation ran?

O Thou, great Governor of all below!
 If I may dare a lifted eye to Thee,
 Thy nod can make the tempest cease to blow,
 Or still the tumult of the raging sea;
 With that controlling pow'r assist ev'n me,
 Those headlong furious passions to confine;
 For all unfit I feel my powers to be,
 'To rule their torrent in th' allowed line,
 O, aid me with thy help, Omnipotence Divine!

BONIE DOON.

[By the Same, from the Same.]

YE flowery banks o' bonie Doon,
 How can ye blume sae fair;
 How can ye chant, ye little birds,
 And I sae fu' o' care.

Thou'll break my heart thou bonie bird
 That sings upon the bough;
 Thou minds me o' the happy days
 When my fause luvè was true.

Thou'll break my heart thou bonie bird
 That sings beside thy mate;
 For sae I sat, and sae I sang,
 And wist nae o' my fate.

Aft hae I rov'd by Bonie Doon,
 To see the woodbine twine,
 And ilka bird sang o' its love,
 And sae did I o' mine.

Wi' lightsome heart I pu'd a rose
 Frae aff its thorny tree,
 And my fause luvver staw the rose,
 But left the thorn wi' me.

YON WILD MOSSY MOUNTAINS.

[By the Same, from the Same.]

YON wild mossy mountains sae lofty and wide,
 That nurse in their bosom the youth o' the Clyde,
 Where the grouse lead their coveys thro' the heather to feed,
 And the shepherd tents his flock as he pipes on his reed :
 Where the grouse, &c.

Not Gowrie's rich valley, nor Forth's sunny shores,
 To me hae the charms o' yon wild mossy moors ;
 For there by a lanely, and sequester'd stream,
 Resides a sweet lassie, my thought and my dream.

Amang thae wild mountains shall still be my path,
 Ilk stream foaming down its ain green, narrow strath ;
 For there wi' my lassie the day lang I rove,
 While o'er us unheeded flie the swift hours o' love.

She is not the fairest, altho' she is fair ;
 O' nice education but sma' is her share ;
 Her parentage humble as humble can be ;
 But I lo'e the dear lassie because she lo'es me.

To beauty what man but maun yield him a prize,
 In her armour of glances, and blushes, and sighs ;
 And when wit and refinement ha'e polished her darts,
 They dazzle our een as they fly to our hearts.

But kindness, sweet kindness in the fond sparkling e'e
 Has lustre outshining the diamond to me ;
 And the heart-beating love, as I'm clasp'd in her arms,
 O, these are my lassie's all-conquering charms !

EVAN BANKS.

[By the Same, from the Same.]

SLOW spreads the gloom my soul desires
 The sun from India's shore retires ;
 To Evan Banks, with temp'rate ray,
 Home of my youth, he leads the day.
 Oh banks to me for ever dear !
 Oh streams whose murmurs still I hear !
 All, all my hopes of bliss reside
 Where Evan mingles with the Clyde.

And she in simple beauty drest,
 Whose image lives within my breast ;
 Who trembling heard my parting sigh,
 And long pursued me with her eye ;
 Does she with heart unchang'd as mine,
 Oft in the vocal bowers recline ?
 Or where yon grot o'erhangs the tide,
 Muse while the Evan seeks the Clyde ?

Ye lofty banks that Evan bound !
 Ye lavish woods that wave around,
 And o'er the stream your shadows throw,
 Which sweetly winds so far below !
 What secret charm to mem'ry brings,
 All that on Evan's border springs ;
 Sweet banks ! ye bloom by Mary's side :
 Blest stream ! she views thee haste to Clyde.

Can all the wealth of India's cost
 Atone for years in absence lost ?
 Return, ye moments of delight,
 With richer treasures bless my sight !
 Swift from this desert let me part,
 And fly to meet a kindred heart !
 Nor more may aught my steps divide
 From that dear stream which flows to Clyde.

THE FAREWELL.

[By the Same, from the Same.]

AE fond kiss and then we sever ;
 Ae farewell, alas, for ever !
 Deep in heart-wrung tears I'll pledge thee,
 Warring sighs and groans I'll wage thee.
 Who shall say that fortune grieves him
 While the star of hope she leaves him ?
 Me, na cheerfu' twinkle lights me ;
 Dark despair around benights me.

I'll ne'er blame my partial fancy,
 Naething could resist my Nancy :
 But to see her was to love her ;
 Love but her, and love for ever.
 Had we never lov'd sae kindly,
 Had we never lov'd sae blindly,
 Never met—or never parted,
 We had ne'er been broken hearted.

Fare thee weel, thou first and fairest !
 Fare thee weel, thou best and dearest !
 Thine be ilka joy and treasure,
 Peace, enjoyment, love and pleasure !
 Ae fond kiss and then we sever :
 Ae farewell, alas, for ever !
 Deep in heart-wrung tears I'll pledge thee,
 Warring sighs and groans I'll wage thee.

THE IONIAN ISLANDS.

[From Mr. WRIGHT's *Horæ Ionicæ*.]

IN that dark season, when the sun declines
 His southern course among the wat'ry signs,
 And icy winter, from his arctic throne,
 Extends his reign o'er half the milder zone ;
 Clime after clime the torpid spell invades,
 From Bergen's forests to Hesperia's glades ;
 Till, rushing o'er the Adriatic deep,
 His storms invest Thessalia's rugged steep.

Here,

Here, as if nature's law restrain'd his course,
 The wint'ry tempest spends its latest force:
 Beyond Thresprotia's cliffs unruffled lie
 A milder climate and serener sky;
 Along the vales more genial breezes blow;
 And brighter sun-beams on the mountains glow.

There was a time, when o'er these favour'd plains,
 Through wint'ry months where partial summer reigns,
 The sun of freedom cheer'd the rising day,
 And blooming science drank the vital ray.
 Now, sunk in shades of intellectual night,
 Extinct for ever is that golden light:
 Forlorn and wither'd lies the Muses bow'r;
 For stern oppression blasts each op'ning flow'r,
 Checks in the soul each germ of heav'nly birth,
 And bows her fairest scyons to the earth;
 While ev'ry vice to slavish fear allied
 Pollutes the heart, and chills its genial tide.

Yet in unfading bloom the scene appears,
 All glowing with the pride of distant years;
 And still, by nature and the Muses dress'd,
 Might waken rapture in a poet's breast.
 E'en I, whose thriftless hand for many a day
 Had cast the half-form'd classic wreath away,
 Feel kindling ardour rush through every vein,
 And weave once more the long-forgotten strain.

Ye isles beyond the Adriatic wave!
 Whose classic shores Ionian waters lave;
 Ye plains of Greece! the Muse's ancient pride,
 Whose rising beauties crown the western tide;
 That smile beneath November's deepest gloom;
 Where April wantons in luxuriant bloom,
 No longer vocal to your native lyre,
 Forgive the daring strain your charms inspire;
 Though all unworthy of the meed ye claim,
 A meed as deathless as your ancient fame.
 For well I know, that not to me belong
 The lofty raptures of poetic song:
 My simple Muse in fancy's gilded ray
 May sport, the insect of a summer day;
 May sparkle like the dew-drop on the flower;
 But never please beyond the transient hour.
 Yet, when the year renews its lovely prime,
 And spring, advancing from the southern clime,
 With rosy smile the infant zephyr greets,
 And bathes his tepid wing in balmy sweets,
 My heart, responsive, owns the genial glow;
 And the wild numbers all unbidden flow.

Hail to the mountains! round whose sacred head
 Their early pride the vernal hours have shed:

Hail to the dryads of each hallow'd shade !
 Whose waving foliage crowns the shelter'd glade ;
 Where Scheria's * rocks the northern wave divide,
 And old Cassopo † greets the straiten'd tide :
 Hail blest Phæacia ! from his dewy wing
 O'er thee Favonius sheds eternal spring :
 No chilling blast thy early harvest knows ;
 Nor bend thy groves beneath December snows.
 Alike the rising and declining year
 Dispense the varied gifts of summer here ;
 Through ev'ry season blooms the tender rose ;
 The shelter'd vi'let here for ever blows ;
 Jonquils and hyacinths their mingling dyes
 Here blend with sweets unknown to colder skies.

Nor does Pomona's bounteous hand disdain
 To swell the triumphs of her sister's reign ;
 For, while the bending orange scarce can hold
 Its glowing harvest of Hesperian gold,
 The fruitful tree fresh-budding sweets adorn,
 Whose spreading blossoms drink the dews of morn ;
 And wint'ry suns, with more than vernal power,
 Mature the fruit and court the op'ning flow'r.

Here gushing founts, and springs that never fail,
 Pour health and plenty through the smiling vale ;
 Fair smiles the vale, with myrtle hedges crown'd,
 And aromatic fragrance breathes around ;
 The rising hill wide-spreading olives shade,
 Skirt the deep ravine, and embow'r the glade
 With sober tints of never-fading green ;
 While distant mountains close the varied scene,
 Beyond the cultivated landscape rise,
 And sternly frown amidst the cloudless skies.

Such is the spot where flows Cressida's ‡ stream ;
 The peasant's solace, and the poet's theme :

* Scheria, the ancient name of Corfu ; probably as seeming to restrain the waters of the Adriatic. This island was also denominated *Δρεπανον*, "the sickle," on account of its form, and is celebrated in Grecian mythology as the instrument of Jupiter's revenge against Saturn.

† Anciently Cassiope, situated opposite to a city of the same name on the western shore of the Grecian continent, from which it is divided only by a narrow strait. It was sacred to Jupiter, and the stream which now flows from among its ruins, is traditionally reported to have had its source under the altar of his temple. It is remarkable, that Cassiope at the northern, and Sybora at the southern extremity of this island, were both nearly opposite to places on the continent of Greece, distinguished respectively by the same appellations. This circumstance, combined with the very short distance between the island and the main, may seem to indicate that at some distant period they were united.

‡ Cressida seems to be a corruption of *χρυσυδάρι*, "golden water." Tradition still points out this as the spot where Ulysses is said to have presented himself before Nausicaa : and Homer certainly could not have selected a situation more appropriate for such an incident.

From the cold rock her limpid fount distils;
 A rocky bed receives the falling rills.
 'Twas here, sequester'd 'midst embow'ring shades,
 The bright Nasicæ sported with her maids,
 What time Laertes' god-like son address'd
 His tale of sorrow to her pitying breast;
 And, as the suppliant chief his suit preferr'd,
 She gaz'd with rapture, and with wonder heard.

Hence to the left extends a spacious plain,
 Nor rich with pastur'd herds, nor waving grain:
 There bending vines their purple pride display,
 And peaches ripen in the summer ray;
 There swells the fig to more than common size,
 And various fruits in rich succession rise:
 No chilly blasts the tender germ assail,
 By mountains shelter'd from each ruder gale;
 The rip'ning fruits no blasting mildews fear,
 Nor fails the vernal promise of the year.
 Oft for these shades,* where nature reigns alone,
 Would great Alcinous quit his regal throne;
 And these the scenes whose beauties could inspire
 The mighty father of the Grecian lyre:
 Nor still the monarch nor the muse they wrong,
 But smile in nature as they bloom in song.

Far to the right, as from Crissida's source
 I trace the Naiad through her devious course,
 O'er the declining hills, in prospect new,
 The distant ocean bursts upon my view.
 There stands, for ever rooted in the sea,
 The monument of Neptune's stern decree,†
 Whose rugged lines a ship's rude semblance keep;
 And still it seems to plough the foaming deep,
 Just at the point, where parting rocks divide,
 And yield reluctant entrance to the tide.
 The curving shores on either side give place,
 And fold the waters in their wide embrace;
 A beauteous lake the spreading waters form,
 Secure from winds, impervious to the storm.

* It is impossible for any one, who traverses the shores of the old harbour with the Odyssey in his recollection, to doubt the personal acquaintance of Homer with the scenery of Corfu, or to hesitate in assigning the garden of Alcinous to the spot here described, which lies at the western extremity of the harbour, and is still exclusively devoted to the same sort of culture.

† The ship of Ulysses, as it is still denominated, is another convincing proof that the Phæacia of Homer was not merely a picture of his imagination. The situation of this little rock, in the midst of the narrow channel which forms the entrance of the old harbour, suggests most naturally the idea of a vessel arrested at the moment when she is entering the port: and its size and appearance are by no means incongruous with this poetical metamorphosis.

Here once, proud isle! thy conqu'ring navies rode,
 And wealth and trade in plenteous current flow'd:
 E'en now, in thought, I see the busy strand
 Throng'd with the merchants of each distant land;
 With fancy's eye thy wide bazars behold,
 Enrich'd with Persia's silk, and Afric's gold;
 Thy fleets, that waft Arabia's balmy spoil,
 Or bear to foreign shores thy native oil.

The bright illusion clothes yon eastern height,
 And palaces and temples meet my sight:
 There, seated on the cliff's impending brow,
 Thy citadel commands the port below;
 With conscious pride o'erlooks the subject plain,
 And frowns indignant on the prostrate main.

The spell dissolves! nor can my searching eye
 One relic of thy former pomp descry:
 Save, that yon rising bank of olive shows
 Where once the stately theatre arose.*
 Thine ancient harbour chok'd with rising sand,
 No footsteps mark the solitary strand;
 While finny shoals through desart waters stray,
 And sea-gulls hover o'er their destin'd prey.

Far from the dreary scene mine eye retires
 To Corfu's distant walls, and rising spires:
 Where, springing from the ocean's rocky bed,
 Isthone† sternly lifts her tow'ring head.
 Rever'd for ever be Isthone's name.
 To valour sacred, nor unknown to fame;
 Since on her rugged brow, in honour's cause,
 The noble guardians of Corcyra's laws,
 Their last despairing effort bravely tried,
 And strove, in vain, to stem rebellion's tide.

When civil discord scourg'd the suff'ring land,
 And mad sedition rais'd her flaming brand;
 Whilst blood-stain'd anarchy, with furious yell,
 Rush'd forth, like Atè from the depths of hell;

* The area of this theatre, which may be distinctly traced, is the only relic of genuine antiquity in the spot where Corcyra stood, and which is still called Palæopoli. Fragments of columns and extensive foundations are frequently discovered among the gardens which at present occupy this site, but nothing sufficiently perfect to lead to even a probable conjecture of its former destination. A large basilicon, of the date of the Emperor Jovian, still remains entire; and in another church, of still more recent foundation, are preserved a few columns of verde antique, and other valuable marbles.

† Isthone, the lofty and extensive mountain, which now bears the name of St. Salvador.

In the account of the Corcyrean sedition which follows, I have endeavoured to adhere, as closely as possible, to the narrative of Thucydides. It is almost unnecessary to remind the reader, that Corcyra was a Corinthian colony, and that this formidable sedition, which broke out in the first year of the 85th Olympiad (B. C. 439) was the cause of the great Peloponnesian war.

And Corinth, vainly seeking to assuage
 Her offspring's strife, provok'd their impious rage;
 Corcyra fiercely turn'd, with rebel hate,
 Her guilty arms against the parent state.
 Athenian wiles her factious councils sway'd,
 Athenian arms supplied insidious aid;
 Till injur'd Corinth mourn'd her vanquish'd fleet,
 And saw Corcyra at her rival's feet.

Meanwhile, the noble and illustrious few
 In faith unshaken, and to honour true,
 Were sternly doom'd on foreign shores to know
 A wretched life of penury and woe.

But, ah! can distance quench the patriot's flame?
 Or wrongs efface a bleeding country's claim?
 How vain the thought! Where'er those footsteps stray
 That bear him from his native land away,
 Indignant though the exile quit his home,
 And, like Camillus, curse ungrateful Rome,
 Some kindred scene will meet his tearful eyes,
 Some sad remembrance in his bosom rise:
 His heart still melting, as he still recedes,
 Forgets its wrongs, and for its country bleeds.

Thus, many a year, where Achelôus guides
 His turbid wave, or mild Eurotas glides,
 With pensive step the joyless exiles rovd,
 And fondly linger'd near the spot they lov'd.
 At length, indignant, they collect their pow'rs,
 Where old Buthrotum * rears her warlike tow'rs.
 Ill-fated warriors! soon the eastern gale
 With unpropitious breezes fills your sail;
 And, as it wafts you to your native home,
 But speeds your passage to the destin'd tomb.

And now, restor'd to lov'd Corcyra's strand,
 Array'd in martial pride I see them stand,
 While pensive courage gleams from ev'ry eye;
 Too few to conquer, yet resolved to die.
 Long, 'midst the ruins of their falling state,
 I mark the heroes struggling with their fate;
 I view them on Isthone's rocky height,
 From cliff to cliff renew the doubtful fight;
 Till parch'd with thirst, by want and famine press'd,
 Fainting with wounds, and unrestor'd by rest,
 Their nerveless arms no more the falchion wield,
 They sink exhausted, and, despairing, yield.

Reckless of life, whose ev'ry charm was past,
 As wither'd oaks defy the stormy blast,

* Now called Bucintro, a small town and fortress, formerly subject to the Venetians, but now to the Pacha of Joannina: situated nearly opposite to the foot of Salvador.

The vanquish'd chiefs, superior to their fate,
In Ptichia's isle * their final doom await;
While thirst of blood inflames the madd'ning crowd,
Fir'd with revenge, of guilty conquest proud.

Oh, mercy! dearest attribute of heav'n!
Best pledge of hope, for mortal solace giv'n!
Thou great prerogative of godlike souls!
Whose gen'rous fire thy soothing spell controuls;
In noble breasts thy pure emotions live,
Alone who know to pity and forgive:
But when plebeian rage, in evil hour,
With step profane invades the throne of pow'r,
Unheard thy voice, unmark'd thy pleading tears,
Urg'd by his hate, and counsell'd by his fears,
The iron despot tracks his path with blood,
And proudly tramples on the great and good.

Yet, though the voice of pity seldom charms
The rebel's vengeance, or his fear disarms,
The victor's fierce intent seem'd half subdu'd,
As sons for sires, for brothers brothers su'd:
Insidious Athens saw with jealous eyes
The tender conflict in their bosoms rise;
Nor blush'd her destin'd conquest to secure
By arts too treach'rous, and, alas! too sure.†

Deluded victims! whither would ye fly
While treason lurks, and vengeance hovers nigh?
The fiends that prompt your flight your steps betray,
And ruthless faction seizes on it prey!
Here let the Muse in pity draw the veil,
Nor paint the sequel of the horrid tale:
Nor tell how, 'midst her sons' funereal fires
Corcyra's ancient liberty expires.

Fain would her hand your tombs with laurel crown,
Martyrs of honour! victims of renown!
Hence, though by heav'n untaught the hero's name
To blazon in the deathless rolls of fame,
With conscions pride her feeble lyre she strung
To deeds, which nobler bards have left unsung.

* This beautiful little island, now called *Scoglio di Vido*, lies in the harbour, and opposite to the city of Corfu, at the distance of about a quarter of a mile from the shore. It was highly cultivated, and covered with vineyards and olive groves before the year 1800, when the French destroyed the plantations, and reduced it to a barren waste.

† Ευελάβοις δὲ τῷ τοίβῳ ἔχ' ἡμισα, ὥστε ἀκριβῆ τὴν προφασιν γενέσθαι, καὶ τὸν τεχνισμένον ἀδιέφερον ἐγχειρῆσαι, οἱ στρατηγοὶ τῶν Ἀθηναίων, κατὰδηλοὶ ὄντες τὰς ἀνδραγαθίας μὴ ἀν βέλεσθαι ὑπ' ἄλλων κομισθέντας, διότι αὐτοὶ ἐς Σικελίαν ἔπλεον τὴν τιμὴν τοῖς ἀγαθοῖς περὶποιῆσαι. This passage, from the narrative of an Athenian writer is, I conceive, a satisfactory demonstration of the part which his countrymen took in this affair: their political motives are too evident to require any comment.

Nor less their fame, who from their native coast
 In later times repell'd th' invading host :
 And, from yon triple rampart's * iron brow,
 Hurl'd proud defiance on the assailing foe,
 What time the Ottoman, with ruthless force,
 Like wintry torrents in their wildest course,
 On Europe pour'd the deluge of his arms,
 And fill'd the Christian world with dire alarms.
 From Candia's tow'rs in Christian slaughter dy'd,
 Whose bulwarks long the infidel defied ;
 Still breathing vengeance, and imbru'd with gore,
 He sought, Corcyra ! thy devoted shore ;
 Full on thy coast his squadrons urg'd their way,
 And deem'd thy fertile fields an easy prey :
 But deem'd in vain. From each surrounding land
 The champions of the cross, a dauntless band,
 With grief recalling Candia's fatal plain,
 Their faith insulted, and their brethren slain,
 Their sacred banners to the wind display'd,
 And † nations rush'd impetuous to thine aid :
 From where Otranto's rugged cliffs arise,
 And the wild Apennine supports the skies ;
 Or where Liguria, thron'd in wealthy pride,
 Sees at her feet the stream of commerce glide ;
 From genial climes, and scenes for ever gay,
 Where blest Etruria courts the summer ray ;
 Or soft Neapolis the sense invites
 To varied joys, and ever new delights ;
 From damp Ravenna, and the mouths of Po ;
 From plains where Tibur's classic waters flow ;
 From Brenta's bank, and Padua's learned bow'rs ;
 Verona's palaces, and Mantua's tow'rs ;
 But chief, from where encircling waters lave
 The mistress of the Adriatic wate.

Around her banners throng'd, from ev'ry side,
 Temeswar's chiefs, and Austria's warlike pride ;
 And bleak Dalmatia pour'd her hardy swarms,
 And fierce Sclavonia call'd her sons to arms,

* Corfu is defended by two citadels and a triple chain of fortifications towards the land side. These works, which are perforated in every direction with covered galleries, and considered by some as equal to those of Malta, were, for the most part, constructed previously to the siege of this city by the Turkish force, which was commenced immediately after the termination of that of Candia, A. D. 1645, and raised about five years afterwards with considerable loss on the part of the assailants. The vigorous resistance that the Turks experienced before Corfu gave an effectual check to the progress of their arms, which had at that time spread so great an alarm throughout Christendom.

† At the siege of Corfu, as at that of Candia, the Venetian armies were strongly reinforced by volunteers from every part of Christendom, and more particularly from the Italian, Austrian, and Hungarian states.

For Venice, erst impatient that a stain
Should dim the glories of her ancient reign,
Conspicuous shone in deeds of warlike fame,
Beneath the shelter of her pow'rful name;
Whilst tributary nations dwelt in peace,
And Rome's proud daughter rul'd the sons of Greece.

Nor less the foe; whose arms had borne away
The bloody palm of many a well fought day:
No more to conquer. Fain the Muse would tell
Beneath whose arms their bravest leaders fell:
But dark oblivion shrouds each glorious name,
And fate, which crown'd their valour, wrongs their fame.

Let Europe, with exulting voice, record
The final triumph of the Christian sword;
How, still display'd, the winged lion flew
Victorious o'er the rampart of Corfu:
While the fierce Saracen, o'erwhelm'd with shame,
Despairing fled, and curs'd the Christian name.

A SURVEY OF ANCIENT GREECE FROM THE SHORES OF CYTHERA.

[From the Same.]

Far to the south, where pale Corone's height
Recedes in distant vapour from the sight,
Yet not unmark'd by Fancy's piercing eye,
The rugged shores of wild Cythera lie.

'Twas on those shores, as ancient poets sing,
What time light Zephyrs woo'd the infant Spring,
Immortal Venus rose, in glowing pride,
Bright as the day-star from the swelling tide:
The conscious earth with new-born flow'rets spread
Beneath her lovely guest a fragrant bed;
From the deep bosom of her coral cell
Each Naiad tun'd the soft accordant shell;
Awaken'd Echo did the notes prolong;
While mountain-nymphs and Dryads join'd the song;
And pour'd from secret bow'r or haunted cave
Their tribute to the daughter of the wave.

Here oft, when Cnidos could no more detain
Her fickle queen, and Paphos sued in vain,
Forsaking e'en Idalia's dearer shade,
With partial step the lovely goddess stray'd,
How strange the choice! that rocks and wilds should prove
The favour'd refuge of the Queen of Love.

'Twas here her son first learn'd the ruthless art,
To mock the wretched victims of his dart.

Nurtur'd 'mid scenes like these, the savage boy
 Revell'd in transports of ferocious joy,
 As, on the promontory's flinty brow,
 He oft review'd the treasures of his bow,
 And smiling, pointed with malicious care
 The rankling shafts of anguish and despair.

Forsaken isle! around thy barren shore
 Wild tempests howl and wintry surges roar.
 The Ægean pilot, hence, with cautious heed
 Doubles the cape, and plies with trembling speed
 His westward course; or scuds beneath the land,
 And moors his vessel on the Pylian strand.
 Beside that strand, indignant of controul,
 Where proud Alpheus bids his waters roll,
 And, rushing to the sea with turbid force,
 Repels the wave that meets his foaming course;
 'Mid groves of olive on Strophadia's isle
 Mine eye discerns her consecrated pile.

What need those ancient wonders to rehearse
 That live in Ovid's strain or Maro's verse?
 How Caläis and Zethes hither drove
 The harpy race, as will'd eternal Jove.
 And from Phœnicia's shores their flight pursu'd,
 Till Strophades received the hellish brood:
 Or how, in after times, the Trojan host,
 Wand'ring in search of Latium's destin'd coast,
 With cymbals put to flight the race obscene,
 Unmindful of the bodings of their queen.

Now in the precinct of this lonely spot,
 The world and all its vanities forgot,
 Sequester'd each within his humble cell,
 The cloister'd monk and peaceful hermit dwell.

Deep in the bosom of the rocky shore
 A limpid fountain pours her ample store;
 Here, through the grove when gales autumnal blow
 And tear the leafy honours from its brow,
 The thirsty peasant stands amaz'd to view
 Wild leaves, that once beside Alpheus grew,
 For foliage of such kind Strophadia never knew.
 'Tis said, beneath the ocean's briny tide
 In subterranean lapse his waters glide,
 And, here emerging, bear from distant glades
 The leafy tribute of their native shades;
 From aged planes that, bending o'er the flood,
 Immortal Scillus! crown thy sacred wood,
 And spreading oaks that still o'ershade the plain
 Where, great in ruin, stands Diana's fane.

Thrice hallow'd shades! where Xenophon retir'd
 His classic labours while the muse inspir'd;
 The Graces listen'd as his numbers flow'd,
 And through the nervous strain persuasion glow'd.

Who can behold Alpheus' sacred tide,
 Nor call to mind Olympia's ancient pride?
 For many a pile, beside his yellow sand,
 In awful ruin consecrates the strand.
 There, deep embosom'd in its hallow'd grove,
 Appears the temple of Olympic Jove;
 And scatter'd fragments faintly mark the place
 Once destined for the combat and the race.
 Within the limits of yon grassy mound;
 That just defines the Stadium's ancient bound,
 Assembled Greece beheld, with proud delight,
 Their hardy sons prolong the toilsome fight;
 Or mark'd their skill, as in the measur'd course
 Their nervous arm restrain'd the foaming horse,
 And press'd with fervid wheel the sacred way,
 Swift as the chariot of the god of day.
 Or who so reckless of a glorious name,
 So dead to courage and so lost to fame,
 Unmov'd that venerable turf can tread,
 Nor think he stands before the mighty dead?
 For surely still their spirits here remain,
 And fondly linger round the sacred plain:
 Or from their bright empyreal seats on high
 Behold those hallow'd scenes with partial eye;
 The scenes which crown'd with glory's bright reward
 Th' athletic victor and immortal bard.

For oft the bard attun'd his lofty strain,
 To sing the heroes of th' Olympic plain;
 While, as he gave, himself acquir'd renown,
 And shar'd the honours of the sacred crown.
 Nor Poesy alone obtain'd the prize
 Which rais'd the deathless victor to the skies;
 When History the laurel'd trophy won,
 The Muses triumph'd in their favour'd son.

Rapt in extatic thought my soul surveys
 The pride of Greece in long-forgotten days;
 Beyond or space or time pursues her flight,
 And all Elysium rises to her sight.
 See, where, restor'd in all its ancient pride,
 The temple opes its Doric portals wide!
 And, lo! emerging from the distant cloud
 That o'er the altar spreads its awful shroud,
 Like meteors flashing o'er the darken'd skies,
 The glimm'ring shades of Demigods arise!
 Now, gaining on the sense, distinct and slow,
 Like pencill'd forms, the fleeting shadows glow.
 Behold the mighty sage! whose pow'rful mind
 Th' Athenian tribes in social bonds combin'd;
 And him! whose brow inspires reluctant awe,
 The man that founded Sparta's iron law,

Next these in slow succession move along
 The ancient masters of the sacred song:
 He, who the frozen rocks of Thrace could move,
 Or wake to life Dodona's list'ning grove;
 Who sung how order rose, and heav'nly light,
 In just succession from the womb of night:
 And he, whose daring strains reveal'd to earth
 The secret tale of each immortal birth,
 Or taught the rustic train beneath what sign
 To turn the soil and prune the spreading vine;
 What stars propitious to their labour rise,
 And which bestows increase, and which denies.

Hark! great Alcæus strikes the Lesbian lyre;
 And Sappho breathes the song of soft desire;
 Anacreon warms his frozen age with wine,
 While rosy braids his silver locks entwine:
 With loftier poft and conscious greatness move
 Callimachus, that hymn'd immortal Jove,
 Theocritus, who told in Doric strains
 The loves and labours of Sicilian swains,
 The mighty Theban, whose aspiring Muse
 On eagle wing her dauntless flight pursues,
 The awful bard, whose sacred numbers flow
 In wildest ecstasy of tragic woe,
 Of sad Prometheus tell the endless pain,
 Or sing the horrors of the Theban plain:
 And see! the rival of his later years,
 In pride majestic Sophocles appears;
 And he, whose mournful numbers taught the stage,
 Medea's wrongs and Phædra's impious rage.

Led by the Muse's hand, in sightless trance
 I see the chief of Epic song advance:
 A golden fillet binds the locks of snow
 That thinly crown his venerable brow;
 Wildly his hand explores the sacred shell,
 And Nature, trembling, owns the pow'rful spell:
 Around him throng, to catch the soothing strain,
 The brave who fought on Ilion's fatal plain.
 Near these, in radiant arms, the heroes stand
 Whose later valour freed their native land:
 Triumphant chiefs and victims of renown
 Whom cypress wreaths, or myrtle chaplets crown!
 Each, on the circle of his batter'd shield,
 Bears the device of some victorious field.
 Behold the dauntless few whose trophies tell
 How at Thermopylæ they nobly fell!
 And those at Marathon who fought and bled,
 Before whose arms the vanquished satrap fled!
 Or where Plataea spreads her wat'ry plain!
 Or Salamis repels th' Ægean main!

And

And him, the sun of Thebes, whose warlike pride
 Rose with his arm, and perish'd when he died!
 And great Timoleon, freedom's dearest son!
 And the unconquer'd soul of Phocion!

Mark where approaching to the sacred shrine,
 Around whose base eternal laurels twine,
 Th' historic ministers of truth unfold
 The mighty deeds in glory's page enroll'd.
 The Carian sage, with energy sublime,
 Unveils the sculptur'd obelisk of time:
 'Twas his to pierce, with more than mortal sight,
 Through ancient darkness and oblivious night,
 Of deeds long past to trace the secret springs,
 The rise of empires and the fate of kings.
 Nor less illustrious, by the altar's side,
 The boast of Athens, and of Greece the pride,
 Thucydides appears; in either hand
 He wields the blood-stain'd sword and flaming brand.
 In awful beauty, o'er his laurell'd brows
 The martial maid her sable ægis throws!
 To him alike reveal'd in all her charms,
 The depths of counsel, and the pride of arms;
 With glowing eloquence she stamps the page
 That consecrates his name to ev'ry age.

Whence bursts this flood of light, before whose ray
 Heaven's azure concave seems to shrink away?
 As if some daring hand aside had thrown
 The mystic veil that shrouds the world unknown,
 Bid mortal sense the vast abyss explore,
 And tempt the trackless deep, unbounded by a shore.

Lo! where, enthron'd amidst the rolling spheres,
 His awful front majestic Plato rears.
 Such as of old, on Sunium's rocky side
 Or where Ilissus' sacred waters glide,
 From reason's light he taught the list'ning youth
 Of moral beauty, or eternal truth;
 Or in mysterious symbols half conceal'd
 The secret lore which Memphis had reveal'd.
 Now, clear'd from mortal mists, his eagle sight
 Expatiates freely through the realms of light:
 Inspir'd by truth he sings in bolder strain
 What pow'r combines creation's golden chain;
 How worlds obey the geometric laws
 Establish'd by the great eternal Cause;
 And whence in human breasts immortal glows
 Th' etherial flame, which heav'n itself bestows:
 Till, rising with its theme, the lofty ode
 Ascends from nature to the throne of God.

Unseen celestial beings hover nigh
 And pour their sweet accordant minstrelsy;

Through boundless space the sacred hymn prolong,
And worlds unnumber'd join the choral song.

But cease, my Muse! for not to thee is giv'n
On earth to emulate the songs of heav'n;
No sister thou, but handmaid, of the Nine;
And least of all their train, as I of thine.
Immortal themes a master's hand require—
In silence I adore, and trembling drop the lyre.

LORD ULLIN'S DAUGHTER.

[From Mr. CAMPBELL'S Poems.]

A CHIEFTAIN to the Highlands bound,
Cries, "Boatman, do not tarry!
"And I'll give thee a silver pound,
"To row us o'er the ferry."—

"Now who be ye, would cross Lochgyle,
"This dark and stormy water!"
"Oh I'm the chief of Ulva's isle,
"And this Lord Ullin's daughter.—

"And fast before her father's men
"Three days we've fled together,
"For should he find us in the glen,
"My blood would stain the heather.

"His horsemen hard behind us ride;
"Should they our steps discover,
"Then who will cheer my bonny bride
"When they have slain her lover?"—

Outspoke the hardy Highland wight
"I'll go, my chief—I'm ready:—
"It is not for your silver bright;
"But for your winsome lady:

"And by my word! the bonny bird
"In danger shall not tarry;
"So, though the waves are raging white,
"I'll row you o'er the ferry."—

By this the storm grew loud apace,
The water-wraith was shrieking;
And in the scowl of heav'n each face
Grew dark as they were speaking.

But still as wilder blew the wind,
 And as the night grew drearer,
 Adown the glen rode armed men,
 Their trampling sounded nearer.—

“ Oh haste thee, haste !” the lady cries,
 “ Though tempests round us gather ;
 “ I’ll meet the raging of the skies :
 “ But not an angry father.”—

The boat has left a stormy land,
 A stormy sea before her,—
 When oh ! too strong for human hand,
 The tempest gather’d o’er her.—

And still they row’d amidst the roar
 Of waters fast prevailing :
 Lord Ullin reached that fatal shore,
 His wrath was changed to wailing.—

For sore dismay’d, through storm and shade
 His child he did discover :—
 One lovely hand she stretch’d for aid,
 And one was round her lover.

“ Come back ! come back !” he cried in grief,
 “ Across this stormy water :
 “ And I’ll forgive your Highland chief,
 “ My daughter !—oh my daughter !”—

’Twas vain : the loud waves lash’d the shore,
 Return or aid preventing :
 The waters wild went o’er his child—
 And he was left lamenting.

O’CONNOR’S CHILD, OR, THE FLOWER OF LOVE LIES BLEEDING.

[From the Same.]

I.

OH once the harp of Innisfail
 Was strung full high to notes of gladness ;
 But yet it often told a tale
 Of more prevailing sadness.
 Sad was the note, and wild its fall,
 As winds that moan at night forlorn

Along the isles of Fion-Gall,
 When for O'Connor's child to mourn,
 The harper told, how lone, how far
 From any mansion's twinkling star,
 From any path of social men,
 Or voice, but from the fox's den,
 The Lady in the desert dwelt,
 And yet no wrongs, no fear she felt:
 Say, why should dwell in place so wild
 The lovely pale O'Connor's child?

II.

Sweet lady! she no more inspires
 Green Erin's hearts with beauty's pow'r,
 As in the palace of her sires
 Shee bloom'd a peerless flow'r.
 Gone from her hand and bosom, gone,
 The royal broche, the jewell'd ring,
 That o'er her dazzling whiteness shone
 Like dew on lilies of the spring.
 Yet why, though fall'n her brother's kerne,
 Beneath De Bourgo's battle stern,
 While yet in Leinster unexplor'd,
 Her friends survive the English sword:
 Why lingers she from Erin's host,
 So far on Galway's shipwreck'd coast;
 Why wanders she a huntress wild—
 The lovely pale O'Connor's child?

III.

And fix'd on empty space, why burn
 Her eyes with momentary wildness;
 And wherefore do they then return
 To more than woman's mildness?
 Dishevell'd are her raven locks,
 On Conocht Moran's name she calls;
 And oft amidst the lonely rocks
 She sings sweet madrigals.
 Plac'd in the foxglove and the moss,
 Behold a parted warrior's cross!
 That is the spot where, evermore,
 The lady, at her shielding door,
 Enjoys that in communion sweet,
 The living and the dead can meet:
 For lo! to love-lorn fantasy,
 The hero of her heart is nigh.

IV.

Bright as the bow that spans the storm,
 In Erin's yellow vesture clad,

A son of light—a lovely form,
 He comes and makes her glad:
 Now on the grass-green turf he sits,
 His tassell'd horn beside him laid;
 Now o'er the hills in chace he flits,
 The hunter and the deer a shade!
 Sweet mourner! those are shadows vain,
 That cross the twilight of her brain;
 Yet she will tell you, she is blest,
 Of Connocht Moran's tomb possess'd,
 More richly than in Aghrim's bow'r,
 When bards high prais'd her beauty's pow'r,
 And kneeling pages offer'd up,
 The morat in a golden cup.

V.

' A hero's bride! this desert bow'r,
 ' It ill befits thy gentle breeding:
 ' And wherefore dost thou love this flow'r
 ' To call—my love lies bleeding?'
 ' This purple flow'r my tears have nurs'd;
 ' A hero's blood supplied its bloom:
 ' I love it, for it was the first
 ' That grew on Connocht Moran's tomb.
 ' Oh! hearken, stranger, to my voice!
 ' This desert mansion is my choice;
 ' And blest, tho' fatal, be the star
 ' That led me to its wilds afar:
 ' For here these pathless mountains free
 ' Gave shelter to my love and me;
 ' And every rock and every stone
 ' Bear witness that he was my own.'

VI.

O'Connor's child, I was the bud
 Of Erin's royal tree of glory;
 But woe to them that wrapt in blood
 The tissue of my story!
 Still as I clasp my burning brain,
 A death-scene rushes on my sight;
 It rises o'er and o'er again,
 The bloody feud,—the fatal night,
 When chasing Connocht Moran's scorn,
 They call'd my hero basely born;
 And bade him choose a meaner bride
 Than from O'Connor's house of pride.
 Their tribe, they said, their high degree,
 Was sung in Tara's psaltery;
 Witness their Eath's victorious brand,
 And Cathal of the bloody hand,—

Glory (they said) and power and honour
 Were in the mansion of O'Connor:
 But he, my lov'd one, bore in field
 A meaner crest upon his shield.

VII.

Ah, brothers! what did it avail,
 That fiercely and triumphantly
 Ye fought the English of the pale,
 And stemm'd De Bourgo's chivalry?
 And what was it to love and me,
 That barons by your standard rode;
 Or beal-fires for your jubilee,
 Upon an hundred mountains glow'd.
 What tho' the lords of tower and dome
 From Shannon to the North-sea foam,—
 Thought ye your iron hands of pride
 Could break the knot that love had tied?
 No:—let the eagle change his plume,
 The leaf its hue, the flow'r its bloom;
 But ties around this heart were spun
 That could not, would not, be undone!

VIII.

At bleating of the wild watch-fold
 Thus sang my love—"Oh come with me:
 "Our bark is on the lake, behold:
 "Our steeds are fasten'd to the tree.
 "Come far from Castle-Connor's clans—
 "Come with thy belted forestere,
 "And I, beside the lake of swans,
 "Shall hunt for thee the fallow deer;
 "And build thy hut and bring thee home
 "The wild fowl, and the honey-comb;
 "And berries from the wood provide,
 "And play my clarshech by thy side.
 "Then come, my love!"—How could I stay?
 Our nimble stag-hounds track'd the way,
 And I pursued by moonless skies,
 The light of Connocht Moran's eyes.

IX.

And fast and far, before the star
 Of day-spring rush'd we thro' the glade,
 And saw at dawn the lofty bawn
 Of Castle-Connor fade.
 Sweet was to us the hermitage
 Of this unplough'd, untrodden shore:
 Like birds all joyous from the cage,
 For man's neglect we lov'd it more.

And well he knew, my huntsman dear,
 To search the game with hawk and spear;
 While I, his evening food to dress,
 Would sing to him in happiness.
 But oh, thou midnight of despair!
 When I was doom'd to rend my hair:
 The night, to me of shrieking sorrow!
 The night, to him that had no morrow!

X.

When all was hush'd at ev'n tide,
 I heard the baying of their beagle:
 Be hush'd! my Connocht Moran cried,
 'Tis but the screaming of the eagle.
 Alas! 'twas not the eyrie's sound,
 Their bloody bands had track'd us out;
 Up-list'ning starts our couchant hound—
 And hark! again, that nearer shout
 Brings faster on the murderers.
 Spare—spare him—Brazil—Desmond fierce!
 In vain—no voice the adder charms;
 Their weapons cross'd my sheltering arms:
 Another's sword has laid him low—
 Another's and another's;
 And every hand that dealt the blow—
 Aye me! it was a brother's!
 Yes, when his moanings died away,
 Their iron hands had dug the clay,
 And o'er his burial turf they trod,
 And I beheld—Oh God! Oh God!
 His life-blood oozing from the sod!

XI.

Warm in his death-wounds sepulchred,
 Alas! my warrior's spirit brave,
 Nor mass nor ulla-lulla heard,
 Lamenting sooth his grave.
 Dragg'd to their hated mansion back,
 How long in thraldom's grasp I lay,
 I know not, for my soul was black,
 And knew no change of night or day.
 One night of horror round me grew;
 Or if I saw, or felt, or knew,
 'Twas but when those grim visages,
 The angry brothers of my race,
 Glared on each eye-ball's aching throb,
 And check'd my bosom's pow'r to sob;
 Or when my heart with pulses drear,
 Beat like a death-watch to my ear.

XII.

But Heav'n, at last, my soul's eclipse
 Did with a vision bright inspire :
 I woke, and felt upon my lips
 A prophetess's fire.
 Thrice in the east a war-drum beat,
 I heard the Saxon's trumpet sound,
 And rang'd as to the judgment seat
 My guilty, trembling brothers round.
 Clad in the helm and shield they came;
 For now De Bourgo's sword and flame
 Had ravag'd Ulster's boundaries,
 And lighted up the midnight skies.
 The standard of O'Connor's sway
 Was in a turret where I lay :
 That standard, with so dire a look,
 As ghastly shone the moon and pale,
 I gave,—that every bosom shook
 Beneath its iron mail.

XIII.

And go! I cried, the combat seek,
 Ye hearts that unappalled bore
 The anguish of a sister's shriek,
 Go!—and return no more!
 For sooner guilt the ordeal brand
 Shall grasp unhurt, than ye shall hold
 The banner with victorious hand,
 Beneath a sister's curse unroll'd.
 Oh stranger! by my country's loss!
 And by my love! and by the cross!
 I swear I never could have spoke
 The curse that sever'd nature's yoke;
 But that a spirit o'er me stood,
 And fir'd me with a wrathful mood;
 And frenzy to my heart was giv'n,
 To speak the malison of heav'n.

XIV.

They would have cross'd themselves all mute,
 They would have pray'd to burst the spell;
 But at the stamping of my foot
 Each hand down pow'rless fell.
 And go to Athunree! I cried,
 High lift the banner of your pride!
 But know that where its sheets unrolls
 The weight of blood is on your souls.
 Go where the havoc of the kerne
 Shall float as high as mountain fern!

Men shall no more your mansion know !
 The nettles on your hearth shall grow !
 Dead as the green oblivious flood,
 That mantles by your walls, shall be
 The glory of O'Connor's blood !
 Away ! away to Athunree !
 Where downward when the sun shall fall
 The raven's wing shall be your pall ;
 And not a vassal shall unlace
 The vizor from your dying face !

XV.

A bolt that overhung our dome
 Suspended till my curse was giv'n,
 Soon as it pass'd these lips of foam
 Peal'd in the blood-red heav'n.
 Dire was the look that o'er their backs
 The angry parting brothers threw ;
 But now, behold ! like cataracts,
 Come down the hills in view
 O'Connor's plumed partizans,
 Thrice ten Innisfallian clans
 Were marching to their doom :
 A sudden storm their plumage toss'd,
 A flash of lightning o'er them cross'd,
 And all again was gloom ;
 But once again in heav'n the bands
 Of thunder spirits clapt their hands.

XVI,

Stranger ! I fled the home of grief,
 At Connocht Moran's tomb to fall ;
 I found the helmet of my chief,
 His bow still hanging on our wall ;
 And took it down, and vow'd to rove
 This desert place a huntress bold ;
 Nor would I change my buried love
 For any heart of living mould.
 No ! for I am a hero's child,
 I'll hunt my quarry in the wild ;
 And still my home this mansion make,
 Of all unheeded and unheeding,
 And cherish, for my warrior's sake,
 The flower of love lies bleeding."

DOMESTIC LITERATURE.

CHAPTER I.

BIBLICAL AND THEOLOGICAL.

Comprising Biblical Criticism; Theological Criticism; Sacred Morals; Controversial Divinity; Sermons and Discourses; Single Sermons.

IN several of our preceding volumes, we have had occasion to notice the very valuable edition of the New Testament lately published at Halle, by Griesbach, and in a considerable degree patronized and supported with pecuniary assistance by a nobleman of our own country. Two subsequent editions of this work have now made their appearance in our own country, independently of an English version; to each of which it becomes us to pay some attention. The first of these productions is entituled "*Novum Testamentum Græce. Textum ad fidem Codicum, Versionum, et patrum recensuit, et lectionis varietatem adjecit D. Jo. Jac. Griesbach. Editio secunda, emendatior, multoque completior. Londini apud Petr. Elmsley, et Halæ Sax. apud Jo. Jac. Curtii Hæredes.*" The first edition of this work appeared in two volumes octavo, in 1775 and 1777: the emendations in the copy before us, adverted to in the title, consist chiefly in the typographical errors which had crept into the preceding text; and its additions are confined almost exclusively to the prolegomena. Every sound scholar and judicious christian must hail an attempt, conducted as the pre-

sent is, to settle the sacred text upon a candid and accurate and persevering examination into almost every authority of every country and age. The received edition, which is that of the Elzivirs, published in 1624, has long been known to be erroneous in various places, and suspected to be so in many more; and we are rather surprized, considering the circumstances under which it was arranged, that it should be so free from error, than that it should possess errors of any kind. In the middle ages of the christian church the Greek text was scarcely ever resorted to: the old Italic or the Vulgate, being almost the only forms in which the New Testament was read. To Erasmus we are indebted for a revival of the original in its proper language: he published five editions of the New Testament in Greek; the Complutensian Polyglot intervening, under the patronage of Ximenes, and enabling him to correct his two last editions in several places, from its judicious amendments. Erasmus was an excellent scholar, and sound critic, but, his engagement with the printer compelled him to write too hastily, and without sufficient examination. The Complutensian and the last edition of Erasmus form the basis

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of all the succeeding Greek editions, of which the three most esteemed are those of Stevens, Beza, and the Elzivirs, published in 1624. Stevens's was enriched by an examination of numerous manuscripts borrowed from the royal library of France, as well as from private sources: but its execution was entrusted to his son Henry, a youth of not more than eighteen, and was marred by many inaccuracies. Beza is supposed to have been in possession of the elder Stevens's original copy, and collected, in conjunction with it, two other of the most valuable MSS. extant: his text, however, does not often vary from that of Stevens, which was also selected as the basis of the Elzivir edition of 1624, which is that in common use in the present.

Griesbach has selected the Elzivir edition as the basis of his own: the alterations introduced into the text appear to have been weighed with the nicest discrimination, and are only admitted upon competent authority: mere conjecture is totally excluded. Wherever a change has been judged necessary, the received text, for which the new text is substituted, is printed in an inner margin, as are also a variety of readings to which the editor appears to incline, but which he has not thought sufficiently supported to warrant their adoption. Below the text are placed other readings and their authorities, collected from a great multiplicity of manuscripts, versions, and biblical interpreters. The prolegomena, introductory to the first volume, are seven: they treat of the sources and authority of the received text; explain the object of the present edition; the critical canons for appreciating the value of differ-

ent readings; the method observed in the constitution of the text; the variation of the present from preceding editions; an explanation of the different signs of abbreviation employed; and a catalogue and classification of Greek MSS. and MSS. and editions of the Slavonic version from which various readings were communicated by Dobrowski. To the second volume is annexed a candid and critical view of the controversy respecting *the three witnesses* in St John's first epistle, chiefly in consequence of Mr. Butler's examination of the same subject in the second volume of his *Horæ Biblicæ*, in which he appears to lean in favour of its retention. We still incline to the same side, and upon the same ground, notwithstanding the arguments here once more mustered together against it. The question, however, is deeply involved, and the opposite authorities are nearly on a balance. We have been particularly attentive as to the number of the changes introduced into the present text compared with the received text; and every sincere christian will rejoice to find that the whole, including additions, rejections, variations, whether of whole sentences, or of an individual word, do not exceed *one hundred and thirty*; while of these one hundred and thirty there are not more than *eight or ten* that produce any essential difference in signification. Where shall we find any other work of the same age, the same extent, possessing MSS. and authorities equally numerous, and containing so many points of different explanation by different controversialists, as little interspersed with errors as the received text, even admitting as an error, every variation from the text now proposed?

“Novum Testamentum Græcum, juxta exemplar Wetstenii, Glasguæ, et D. Jo. Jac. Griesbachii, Halæ, impressum: accedunt Prolegomena in Evangelia, in Acta, et Epistolas Apostolorum, accurate G. H. Dakins, LL. D. &c.” “A new Greek Testament, printed according to the exemplar of Wetstein, Glasgow, and Griesbach; with prefaces to the Gospels, Acts, and Apostolic Epistles, by G. H. Dakins, LL.D. F.A.S. &c.” We rejoice to perceive that so valuable an improvement as that of stereotype printing is in the instance before us applied to the New Testament in its original tongue; the original of the Old Testament stands still further in need of it, and we have some reason for predicting that this important desideratum will not long be withheld from the public. The text before us is an excellent specimen of attention and elegant workmanship; and, excepting in a few instances, has been pretty closely superintended by the learned editor. Amongst the most glaring errors we have noticed, is a continuance of the running title of the preceding epistles into that of St. James: by which we have it *Επιστολη ΠΡΟΣ Ιακωβου*, “the Epistle to St. James,” instead of *Επιστολη Ιακωβου Καθολικη*, “the General Epistle of St. James.” This, however, we can easily overlook, as a mistake not likely to be productive of the smallest mischief whatever. But we cannot overlook so easily the total suppression of all information, on the part of Dr. Dakins, as to the object which he *actually had* in view in bringing forward the present edition; or the very extraordinary manner in which he has totally abandoned that which he *appears to have had* in view. Not a line of general preface or in-

troduction is vouchsafed to us to clear away the palpable obscure into which we are thrown: and though the title-page talks of prolegomena to most of the books of which the New Testament consists, the editor can hardly be said to have made good his word even in this respect. He has, in truth, prefixed to each of the books he has noticed, a few lines of introductory matter, but most meagrely and unsatisfactorily, in length never exceeding a single page, and sometimes not extending to a more minute detail than we find prefixed to many single chapters of the Bible in most editions of our established version. We regret the rather this parsimonious spirit of comment, because, from the little the editor has done, he has given sufficient proof of an elegant and classical pen. To the title-page, therefore, we are solely referred as to an explanation of his object; and in this we are told that his intention is to give a new edition of the Greek Testament agreeably to the exemplar (*juxta exemplar*) of Wetstein, the Glasgow text, and Griesbach. Now we freely confess ourselves totally unacquainted with the meaning of this expression: the unlearned reader will be at once tempted to conceive that all these copies follow but one and the same codex, and afford but one and the same exemplar: but to every one who has compared the three different texts hereby referred to, and is acquainted with the variety of readings they offer, the term cannot fail to strike him as a very extraordinary and unintelligible mode of phrasing. In effect, the Glasgow edition, which is nothing more than an edition typographically corrected from the common edition collated by the Elzivirs in 1624, is the

the only text, as far as we have observed, upon a pretty accurate perusal, which Dr Dakins has taken the trouble to print from, notwithstanding all the specious promises in his title-page. With respect to Griesbach's edition more especially, this utter abandonment of his engagement is altogether unpardonable; first, because Griesbach bids fair in the present day, in a very great degree, to supersede both Mill and Wetstein; and next, because, as it is an edition which is now greedily sought after through all Europe, the book before us has a strong chance of being frequently purchased (in consequence of the assertion in its title-page), in order to gratify such inclination; and of course cannot fail in every instance either to deceive or to disappoint the purchaser. We have just observed, in our article upon Griesbach, that the alterations introduced by him into the common Greek text amount to about a hundred and thirty; of these we have examined nearly *a hundred* in the book before us, which pretends to be printed according to Griesbach's exemplar, and we can safely aver that the exemplar is not followed in a single instance: nay, not even in those of most importance; as for example, in his rejections of the received text, Mat. vi. 13. xx. 23. Luke xi. 2. xvii. 36. Heb. ii. 7. ix. 1. which last is also rejected in our common English version, 1 John ii. 23. v. 7, 8, 13: nor in the supplemental matter introduced into Griesbach, Rom. xiv. at the close, 1 Cor. ix. 20. Heb. ii. 2. Jude 4. 25. All these and every other variation, whether suppressive, supplemental, or merely verbal, ought to have been introduced into the present text, consistently with the editor's pretensions in his title-page. Had we

however found them introduced in the form of notes or marginal references, we should in some measure have been satisfied, though the editor's proposed object would not by this mean have been fully accomplished: but we cannot avoid entering our serious protest against this promise of giving us the text of Wetstein and Griesbach in the title-page, and then instantly abandoning them as much as if the editor had never heard of such names in his life.

"The New Testament, in an improved version, upon the basis of Archbishop Newcombe's New Translation: with a corrected text and notes critical and explanatory." That a revision of some kind or other of our vernacular bible, though by no means absolutely necessary, is a matter highly desirable, can be denied by no man who takes into consideration the natural wear and tear of language, as well as of every other human composition; the obsolescence into which some words are daily falling, the new senses ascribed as perpetually to others, and the more accurate knowledge we now possess of antient oriental customs and manners than was possessed by the best scholars in King James's time: but more especially, when it is considered that King James's English version was completed by about thirteen years antecedently to the Greek text, as settled by the Elzivir edition, which is that in common use over all Europe; and consequently drawn from sources less generally admitted, and in several instances at variance with the Elzivir copy. Yet, while we contend for a revision of *some kind*, we contend also that the changes introduced, whether of style or matter, ought to be as few and as slender

as possible. The language of the English bible is, in a considerable degree, a language of its own: it has beauties peculiar to itself; and is venerable from its antiquity even in those passages or phrases which cannot be critically or grammatically defended. In the present instance we have no reason to complain of any general invasion of the established style: the translators have been scrupulously careful of preserving it as far as it would answer their purpose. The Greek text they have selected to translate from is the second edition of Griesbach; and on this account it cannot be strictly said that they have adhered to "the basis of Archbishop Newcombe's translation," since it was from Griesbach's *first* edition, published nearly forty years ago, that the venerable prelate drew his version; and, since the second edition contains several variations from the first in passages of more than ordinary importance. The introduction of the archbishop's name into the title-page, may perhaps be serviceable, and it would be fastidious, perhaps ill-natured, to object to so harmless a manœuvre. Independently of the general purity of style, we have also to remark, that the version appears to be, with very few exceptions, fairly and closely rendered from the Greek text selected for the occasion; and were it not for the subjoined notes, the use of the Italic instead of the Roman character, to intimate a want of authenticity in chapters which the particular doctrines of the translators would find it convenient to expunge altogether, as well as for a few peculiar bearings given to passages that are equally obnoxious, this translation might be freely recommended to christians of all denominations. To the explanatory

notes we have a most decided objection. Commentaries upon the bible are highly useful and well worthy of encouragement: but when a translation of the bible or of any part of it is introduced before the public merely as a translation, it ought certainly to be allowed to stand on its own foundation alone, and make its own unbiassed appeal to the judgment of the general reader. Amidst the instances of a peculiar bearing given to certain passages, apparently in consequence alone of the particular tenets of the translators, we may select the following, to which we could add others, if we had sufficient space: In our common version, Acts ix. 21, is rendered thus: "But all that heard him were amazed; and said, Is not this he that destroyed them which called on this name (the name of Christ, as predicted in v. 20.) in Jerusalem?" The present version, for "which called on this name," reads "which *are called by this name.*" The original is τοὺς ἐπικαλούμενους τὸ ὄνομα τοῦτο. Now we are ready to admit that τοὺς ἐπικαλούμενους may imply either of these renderings. Why then should the established rendering be deviated from? It is in vain to conceal the motive: the translators before us do not approve of ascribing divine honours to our Saviour, and they have hence given the passage a bearing which will more immediately comport with their own doctrines. But there is here another question of some importance to be attended to: and that is, although, as a *detached and unconnected sentence*, the phrase in dispute may be rendered either way, is there nothing in the context that can lead us to determine which was the exact sense intended by the sacred writer? Now, upon this point,

point, we have no difficulty in determining, and whatever the result may be as to the doctrine involved, we have no hesitation whatever in affirming that the context, the general series of events in the book before us, is altogether in favour of the established reading. Not to dwell upon the parallelism which occurs in v. 14. of the same chapter, we shall merely observe that the disciples who, upon the *new and improved* version, are asserted to have been called *christians*, or *by the name of Christ*, on or before the conversion of Saul, were not in point of fact so denominated till *eight or ten years afterwards*: in reality, not till after Saul's conversion had been of great effect to the church, and amidst other ministrations, he had been a co-pastor with Barnabas at Antioch for a twelvemonth—at which time, and not till which time, the disciples first assumed this appellation. See Acts xi. 26. “And when he (*Barnabas*) had found him (*Saul*) he brought him unto Antioch. And it came to pass that a whole year they assembled themselves with the church, and taught much people: *and the disciples were called christians first at Antioch.*” The variation now offered, therefore, though more commodious to the tenets of the translators, is altogether incongruous with the series of apostolic events, and cannot be maintained without a gross anachronism.

“Errata of the Protestant Bible, or the Truth of the English Translations examined, &c. by Thomas Ward; a new edition, carefully revised and corrected. Dublin.” The work of which this new edition is given is nearly a century and a half old: it confines its examination to the old English standards of 1562, 1567, and 1579.

Ward was a papist; and in various passages of these translations he thought he perceived (and in some cases he had reason for thinking so) an undue bearing against the catholic religion. *At that time*, therefore, his book had its value; and, in truth, almost the whole of the passages objected to by Ward, were modified, and freed from objection by the authors of the extant version. To re-edite this obsolete work, therefore, appears to be a very absurd, if not a very mischievous, undertaking: the learned catholic cannot be deceived by it; but thousands of the unlearned and uninformed catholics may. It is curious however to observe, that the editor himself admits in one place that the obnoxious passages cited, have been corrected in the established translation; and thus, as Dr. Ryan observes, “his book is a libel on himself, and on those who republish it.” For other valuable remarks, and an able refutation of the work thus offered, we beg leave to recommend to the reader Dr. Edward Ryan's “Analysis of Ward's Errata of the Protestant Bible;” in which the writer abundantly vindicates the translators of the established version from all charges of prejudice and partiality, and ably retorts upon the present anonymous editor, by proving that the sole object he could have in view, is that of exposing the Protestant Bible and the Protestant Clergy to ridicule and contempt, which nevertheless, we hope, he will be as little able to accomplish in Ireland as we are sure he will in England.

“Institutes of Biblical Criticism: or Heads of the Course of Lectures on that subject read in the University and King's College, Aberdeen; by Gilbert Gerrard, D. D. &c.” 8vo. Dr. Gerrard here proves himself to have studied the sacred scriptures with

with so recondite a criticism, and so sound a judgment, that we cannot avoid wishing he had been a little more particular in giving his own opinion upon controverted passages, and even on controverted doctrines, than he has chosen to do. He has in general stated the antagonist arguments so impartially, that the young student is almost always left to his own sole discrimination, and in cases where the arguments are equal, and the weight of a tutor's opinion is of necessity to turn the balance, he will find it a difficult matter to determine on which side the truth lies. This, in our opinion, is to be impartial over-much. When indeed a writer addresses the world at large, which is composed of every diversity of sects and parties, such a conduct is highly desirable, and we have a right to expect it; but when a tutor delivers a course of lectures to his pupils, whose minds are intended to be formed by his instructions, he does not fulfil the whole of his duty if he forbear to state to them the result of his own mature judgment upon the different subjects discussed. The man who is qualified for a tutor *ought* to have an opinion of his own; if he have *none*, he is completely disqualified by this very circumstance; and if he have, to suppress it is not to exhibit impartiality, but cowardice: it is not candour, but a dereliction of duty. The work is divided into two parts. In the first, which extends to eight chapters, our author discusses the following subjects: scripture manuscripts and editions; the original languages; the kindred languages; versions; the occasion, scope, and other circumstances of the books of scripture; comparison of scripture with itself; ancient history and

manners; ancient learning and opinions. The second part embraces the subject of corrective or emendatory criticism, and extends to the same number of chapters as the first. It examines the sources and different kinds of false readings: the explication of separate words, and of combinations of words; the number, scope, design, and connection of the scripture books, with the different sorts of composition to be found in them; apparent contradictions in different parts of scripture, both in history, prophecy, and quotation: apparent contradictions to reason and morality, and to acknowledged matters of fact. The work is worthy of a second edition, which we shall soon expect to see announced.

“Remarks on the two last petitions in the Lord's Prayer:” by Granville Sharp, 12mo. “A letter to Granville Sharp, Esq. respecting his remarks on the two last petitions in the Lord's Prayer. From a country clergyman, 12mo.” We have here another proof of the very extraordinary attempt to establish doctrines upon the doubtful meaning of a Greek article. The petitions referred to are, Mat. vi. 13, ‘and lead us not into temptation, but deliver us from evil;’ (*you πονηρου*) which Mr. Sharp contends ought to be translated, in consequence of the definite article being employed, and the adjective having no substantive in the same sentence to agree with it, “from the evil one,” or “prince of dæmons.” Now it so happens, that the very same expression occurs at least fifteen times in the course of the New Testament, in many of which it is impossible thus to render it, though in others such a rendering is fair and correct, and

and is actually given in our received version. While these last are triumphantly laid hold of by the venerable critic before us, he is compelled to admit that, in regard to one of them which he examines, Mat. v. 39. *μη ἀντιστηνᾶ τῷ πονηρῷ*, "resist not evil;" his rule cannot by any critical contortion whatever be made to apply, for that the text can only mean "any evil man, or human being," and not "the evil one, or prince of dæmons." And as there are several other places in which the same phrase occurs, and upon which Mr. Sharp is totally silent, we must take it for granted that in these also he has found himself equally foiled. New converts, however, are generally warmer than old professors, and some noviciates are apt to think themselves wiser than their master: and hence what Mr. Sharp has prudently declined to attempt, the country clergyman before us, who has imbibed Mr. Sharp's Greek accidence, has attempted for him. By giving a round-about rendering, a remote paraphrase, instead of a direct version, this gentleman flatters himself that he is able to introduce the "evil one," or "prince of dæmons," into this last text; as he thinks also that he has ingenuity enough to accomplish in 1 Cor. v. 13. *ἐξαρεῖτε τὸν πονηρὸν ἐξ ὑμῶν αὐτῶν* "put away from amongst you that wicked person." The country clergyman, however, finds this a more Herculean task, than even the preceding effort; and incapable of perfectly satisfying himself, he modestly concludes with a "suspicion of possible error in the text." The fair conclusion from which is, that the country clergyman, rather than give up his theory, is disposed to give up his bible. How distress-

ing to every sober critic is it to behold sound arguments and direct texts of scripture neglected in pursuit of such illusory phantoms, such mere Will o' the whisks, as are here offered to us: to survey the doctrines of the Trinity, and of the personality of the devil, made *mainly*, if not *chiefly*, to depend upon an imaginary power in a Greek article, when placed in a particular position.

"A Dissertation upon the Logos of St. John, &c. by Richard Lawrence, LL. D." 8vo. Whatever falls from the pen of this acute and excellent writer is sure to be worthy of attention: and in the tract before us, he gives the substance of his sermons upon the subject of the Logos, preached before the University of Oxford. What was the direct cause of St. John's using the term *λογος*, or as we have it translated in our received version, *word*, as also what was the immediate idea he attached to the term, has been a subject of controversy for many ages. Some critics conceive the evangelist had a reference to the *mimra dii*, or *memra dadonai* of the Targumists, which they conceive to have implied a divine person distinct from Jehovah: others conceive the evangelist to have had in view certain doctrines of the Alexandrine school, which, as early as the period before us, they suppose to have been interwoven in some parts of Judea with the doctrines of the gospel; a third class trace the origin of the term in the heterodox opinions of the Gnostics, which opinions St. John is hereby conceived to oppose; while a fourth refer the term to the same term as employed in Psalm xxxiii. 6, and conceive that the Evangelist had his eye directed to this text at the time of writing. Dr. Lawrence does not appear

appear inclined to any of these conceptions. He believes the term to be employed by the Evangelist as a characteristic metonymy of the Messiah; and that, instead of importing the mere attribute of *reason* or *wisdom*, as contended for by the sect of Unitarians, it is a direct personal appellative, and was so regarded by the primitive christians. His arguments upon this last point appear to us conclusive; and the whole tract is filled with a degree of research, learning, ingenuity, and candour, that will entitle it to the serious perusal of christians of every denomination.

As collaterally connected with this subject, we shall next notice Mr. Jerningham's "Alexandrian School; or a Narrative of the First Christian Professors in Alexandria; with Observations on the influence they still maintain over the Established Church." We have just censured the absurdity of founding the doctrine of a trinity and of a personal Satan upon the casual position of a Greek article: perhaps the absurdity is quite as great that refers either the one or the other of these tenets to the school of Alexandria. Mr. Jerningham, however, not only ascribes the doctrine of a trinity to this school of ancient philosophy, but, at the same time, the doctrines of original sin, predestination, and justification by faith. We believe with Dr. Lawrence, that the platonism of Alexandria has had far less to do with the christian religion at any time than is generally contended for. It suits the convenience, however, of some sects of christians to suppose such a connexion, and it has been *supposed*, and the *supposition* has been supported accordingly. The trinity of Plato, certainly, does not in a variety of

points quadrate with that of the sacred scriptures; neither does that of Aristotle, nor that of Pythagoras, nor that of Vedas, or of the Zendavesta, nor of the Edda; nor do the six last in every respect quadrate with each other. The question, however, has never yet been decided, how the general outlines of a doctrine of this extraordinary kind, whatever differences it may possess in the detail, could have been started in such different and unconnected parts of the world, and at such different periods of time. Nor has it yet been proved that the christian religion is not just as much indebted to any one of these different sects or systems as to any other; to the Zendavesta as to Plato, to the Vedas as to the eclectism of Alexandria. The doctrine of original sin, which is another terrible stumbling-block to our author, is daily exemplified in hereditary corporeal diseases. Morbid habits of body are so well known to be propagated from generation to generation, that nobody doubts of the fact, or wonders at it, or calls the benevolence or the wisdom of the Deity into question upon the subject. Why then should we object to the same fact when applied to the mind? why may not morbid moral habits be propagable in the same manner as corporeal, without infringing upon the wisdom or the beneficence of the great Creator. We apply this remark more especially to those who, with the author before us, resolve the mind as well as the body into a mere modification of matter, and believe the former to be as much the immediate result of sexual union as the latter.

"Thoughts on Prophecy; particularly as connected with the Present Times; supported by History.

tory. By G. R. Hioan." 8vo. Another attempt to make Bonaparte one of the grand moving pivots of both the old and new Testaments, a chief object of the prophecies of Daniel, St. Paul, and the Revelations. Bonaparte, it seems, is the Antiochus Epiphanes of the book of Daniel, and the insignificant Alexander of Russia the king of the south. The meeting of these two emperors on the Niemen, at the treaty of Tilsit, is as clearly predicted, in the opinion of the present hierophant, as was the destruction of Jerusalem; and even the name itself of Bonaparte is now discovered to have been carefully locked up in the mystical number of the beast in the apocalypse; for behold! Mr. Hioan has deciphered it in the name of the French Emperor. A little legerdemain, however, has been found necessary upon this last subject: for *Bonaparte*, as it is commonly written, cannot be made, by any dexterity, to bend to the number of 666; and it is hence necessary for our author to change it to *Bonneparte* (*Βοννεπαρτη*) under which alteration it may certainly, like a thousand other words, indicate this aggregate amount. It only remains for M. Hioan to contend farther that the dynasty of the Bonapartes do not know their own name, and that nothing but judicial blindness could prevent them from spelling it as he has done in the present instance, and as it now appears, St. John intended it should have been spelt nearly two thousand years ago. How much is it to be lamented that time and talents should be thus exhausted in furnishing new grounds of dilemma to the christian, and new grounds of ridicule to the infidel!

"A Commentary on the first, second, and third Epistles of St.

John; by Thomas Hawkins." 8vo. Mr. Hawkins modestly foregoes all claim to scholarship in the commencement of his volume; and, in various places we have reason to perceive that his disavowal is as just as it is modest. He, nevertheless, appears to be a worthy and excellent man, ambitious of doing service to the larger, and more important body of the unlearned. We wish him success in his undertaking: and we wish, at the same time, that, before he ventures to appeal to the public again, he would study a little more deeply, and be a little more able to unite the character of the critic to that of the expounder.

"The Fathers of the English Church: or a Selection from the Writings of the Reformers and early Protestant Divines of the Church of England." 8vo. We have already noticed this work, and with approbation. The volume before us contains selections from the writings of Dr. Launcelot Ridley, cousin to the bishop of the same name; and from the excellent sermons of Dr. Latimer. We have also King Edward's Catechism, and, prefixed to it, the royal injunction with which it was originally published. In a note are given the forty-two articles, which received the sanction of the clergy in convocation at the same time as the catechism. The volume also contains the lives of Latimer and King Edward from Fox's Martyrology, interspersed with no small portion of highly interesting matter upon other subjects. A short account of Ridley is also given, collected from various quarters. Diligence, judgment, and impartiality continue to characterise this work; and while these are its distinguishing features, we cannot forbear to wish it god-speed.

"The

"The Works of the Right Reverend Father in God Ezekiel Hopkins, D. D. &c. now first collected, arranged, and revised, with a life of the author, and a copious index; by Josiah Pratt, B. D. F. A. S. 4 vols." 8vo. Mr. Pratt may be regarded as general editor of the fathers of the latter ages of the English Church. He is well known to have edited Bishop Hall's Works in ten volumes 8vo. before he commenced the present undertaking; and it has been hinted to us that he by no means intends to close with Bishop Hopkins. In the publication before us, we perceive much more labour than usually characterises the task of even editorship; so much so, indeed, as to render it almost a misnomer to call this the "*Works*" of Dr. Hopkins, since it is in a very considerable degree the work of Mr. Pratt himself. Some of these pieces having been taken from the bishop's mouth (for he often spoke from the pulpit extempore) by the pen of a ready writer, though they contained his genuine sentiments, yet were not sufficiently finished for the press. To finish them for this purpose has cost the editor much patient labour and minute attention. The *orthography*, he tells us, needed but *little* alteration: the *punctuation* was *very defective*: the *style* colloquial: the *metaphors* were sometimes so puerile, or so offensive, as to excite disgust rather than any honourable and virtuous feelings. All these, where necessary, are altered and omitted; yet Mr. Pratt informs us, for the gratification of the curious, of different places where the originals may be perused. The scripture quotations are for the most part given in the standard version: and the divisions and subdivisions of

the discourses are corrected and discriminated. The work is dedicated to Mr. Wilberforce, who appears, from the dedication, to be peculiarly attached to the bishop's writings, and whose "frequent inquiries after them have contributed (we are told) to recal him *rapidly* into notice, and consequent estimation."

"Essays on the Nature, Order, Privileges, and Duties of the Christian Church; with an address on Personal Religion: by Charles Dewhurst." 8vo. This writer assumes rather too much in taking his own individual church or meeting as a model for the christian church in general. Yet he means well, and there is for the most part, a liberality and candour in his manner with which we are pleased. He has, however, a rooted inveteracy against the admission of human authority in ecclesiastical concerns, which he declares to be "a debasing and pernicious sentiment, which, during the first three centuries, never entered *into the minds* of christians." Now, without pretending to know so much of the secret motions of the *minds* of christians at the period here referred to, we will only observe, that such a conduct entered at least into their *actions*: it is unnecessary to cite quotations upon this subject: every one who is acquainted with the writings of Eusebius, Tertullian, and Cyprian, is able to cite for himself: and our author ought to have been better acquainted with these writings than he hereby proves himself to have been.

"Sketches of Human Nature; or Hints chiefly relating to the Duties and Difficulties that occur in the Intercourse of Christians with one another and with the world:

world: by William Innes, Dundee." 8vo. Mr. Innes appears to be a more violent enemy to human authority in matters of religion than Mr. Dewart; and openly avows his belief that every such obtrusion, whether in regard to discipline or ceremony, however sanctioned by ancient usage, venerable names, or apparent utility, is not only void of obligation, but a needless and presumptuous infringement on the prerogative of the great author of our salvation. Yet we have seen nothing in the course of this little volume to support so high sounding a denunciation. There is too much general deficiency in it to expect that Mr. Innes will put any established church into danger of innovation.

"The Works of the Rev. John Newton, late Rector of the United Parishes of St. Mary, Woolnoth, and St. Mary, Woolchurch Haw. Published by direction of his executors, 10 vols." 12mo. More than half the matter contained in this collection has been long before the world, and a fair estimate has hence been formed of its general merits and defects. The new matter shews in every characteristic its family alliance with the old: and proceeding from the same source, it is impregnated with the same spirit. The friend of Cowper, and a friend esteemed for his talents, as well as for his moral goodness, must necessarily bring with him no small recommendation even to the republic of letters. The style of Newton is less polished than that of Cowper, but we can often perceive twinklings of the same genius; the same independency of spirit; the same originality of thought; the same benevolence and milk of human nature. There are few letters more interesting than

those now before us: and especially than such of them as appear to have been addressed to the author of "The Task," though the name is concealed under asterisks. With the peculiar train of Mr. Newton's religious tenets we do not interfere: they have long been known to the public, and, whether right or wrong, appear to be making daily inroads amongst us. We will only add, that his mode of supporting them is his own; and that we have seldom seen them supported so plausibly.

"Classical Elocution: or an Essay on the Delivery of Sermons, and the Performance of Public Prayer, &c. by the Rev. W. J. Rees, M. A. Rector of Casco, Radnorshire, &c." 12mo. It is a very high recommendation of this tract, that it was originally written by the society for promoting christian knowledge and church union in the diocese of St. David, and that it is published with their approbation, and under their sanction. But it is necessary that the reader should in some measure become acquainted with the origin and nature of the society we now allude to. When the present most excellent and learned bishop of St. David's, Dr. Burgess, was first appointed to this prelacy, instead of forming a determination to hold it only till a richer see could be obtained, as has been the uniform practice of his predecessors for a century or two past, he resolved, at once, notwithstanding it is the poorest prelacy in the hierarchy, to unite himself to it for life; to labour with all his might to render the clergy in his own diocese respectable in regard to education; and to suppress, as far as example and argument might weigh, that absurd and frantic sect of

of religionists, that, under the name of *jumpers*, thus called from the extravagance of their motions and gesticulations, so largely infringed on his diocese, and drew so many of the poorer and more ignorant inhabitants after them. To effect this benevolent and useful purpose was instituted the society here referred to: the direct objects of which are, to distribute bibles and common prayer-books at reduced prices among the poor; and to distribute gratis a variety of the most useful and popular religious tracts both in Welsh and English: to establish libraries for the use of the clergy of the diocese: to facilitate, by public subscription, the means of education to young men intended for the established ministry in the same diocese, the education to be within the said boundary: to encourage the establishment of English schools, and of Sunday schools. The essay before us is intended to promote that part of this general plan, which consists in properly preparing young men for the ministry of the established church: the observations it contains are for the most part highly important and relative: and the very estimable author appears to have entered into the full spirit of this benevolent and right reverend patron upon this momentous subject. We ought not to close this article without hinting, that Dr. Burgess, with true primitive constancy to the charge first committed to him, has refused and still continues to refuse, the offer of advancement to more lucrative posts; being inflexibly resolved to spend and be spent, to live and die amongst them, as their pastor and ecclesiastical guide.

“Zeal without Innovation: or the present State of Religion and

Morals considered: with a View to the Disposition and Measures required for its Improvement. To which is subjoined an Address to young Clergymen, intended to guard them against some prevalent Errors.” 8vo.

“Zeal without Bigotry: or an Antidote to the Aspersions of the Author of “Zeal without Innovation.” 8vo.

We unite these together, as antagonist publications. The author of the first is extremely alarmed at the want of “life and effect” with which he charges the general state of the ministry in our parish churches, and at the appearance of “half-empty pews,” instead of a “crowded auditory, hanging on the preacher’s lips,” which is the natural result of this lifelessness. He is next extremely indignant at the means taken by Dissenters in general, and especially by those who are called the evangelical clergy, in order to fill up their own places of public worship at the expence of the parish churches; and seems to regard the train of measures pursued as a kind of ecclesiastical *poaching*, for which the culprits ought to be publicly called to account, and severely branded. He is more especially angry at the success of these opposers of the established church, and particularly of the Methodist or evangelical branch, from their paucity of all rational claim to popularity and reverential esteem. He describes them as possessed of “vanity, effrontery, coarseness, of the want of that affectionate spirit which should breathe through all the ministrations of a Christian teacher;” and as “commonly appearing before a congregation with an *objurgatory* aspect.” He describes their sermons as “contemptible in the extreme:

treme: we are disgusted," says he, "by the violation of all the rules which the common sense of mankind teaches them to expect the observance of, on the occasion. It is true indeed, that something is heard about Christ, about faith and repentance, about sin and grace: but in vain we look for argument or persuasion, or suavity, or reverential demeanour." Finally, he censures their powers of authorship, as severely as those of preaching; and is sorely grieved at being compelled "to see, as is frequently the case, the blessed truths of the Gospel degraded, by being associated with newspaper bombast, with impudence, with invective, with dotage, with drivelling cant, with buffoonery, and scurrility! Who," says he, "can read these despicable publications, without thinking contemptuously of all who abet them?" He offers many important remarks on the causes that have conspired to bring the established church into its present state of disrepute, and many valuable regulations by which it may gain the ascendancy it ought ever to possess.

In opposition to this writer, the author of "Zeal without Bigotry," contends, that salvation is not confined to the pale of any particular church—that "all that Christianity requires of the civil magistrate is to let it alone:" that "toleration ought not to be solicited as an indulgence—that it is a right to which all religionists have an equal claim, and no government can withhold the exercise without a breach of duty; that the terms clergy and laity are entirely of Popish origin; and that Christianity knows of no such chartered distinctions."

We have no hesitation in stating, that the first of these two writers,

in the midst of many shrewd remarks, and much valuable information, deals his blows rather too hardly, and indeed too indiscriminately against the numerous sects which he opposes. But whilst we say this we cannot express our astonishment at the total ignorance of all ecclesiastical history, which characterises most of the positions we have extracted from the pamphlet of his opponent. One could be almost tempted to believe, that he had never heard of a hierarchy under the law, or of the selection of apostles or evangelists, as a distinct class of spiritual guides, upon the first promulgation of the Gospel. As to the rest, we freely confess that we think the church infinitely less dangerous than is generally conceived: we believe that some twenty years ago it was indeed at a miserable, if not at an alarming ebb; but the very efforts, the zeal and animation which have been evinced by various sectaries, who perhaps would like to witness its overthrow, have been caught, and if we mistake not, will soon be rivalled, so far as they deserve to be rivalled, by the regular clergy; our parish churches have been proportionably filled, and both the universities are at this moment boasting of a greater number of divinity students of a serious character than they have known for some centuries past. In the tide of human events, evil is thus educating good, and the providence of the Supreme Arbiter continues to interpose with its protecting energy, and to effect its own end by its own means, and in its own way.

We proceed to enumerate, for we cannot examine at length, the sermons and discourses of the period

period before us. Among these the "Posthumous Sermons on several Subjects, by the late Rev. W. Paley, D. D. &c." are entitled to our foremost attention. These were partly prepared for printing by this excellent writer a short time before his decease, and by a codicil to his will, were directed to be revised and printed by the Rev. Mr. Stevenson, at the expense of the testator's executors, to be distributed *gratis* among the poor of his own parish. They have been *published*, however, to prevent a surreptitious sale. The Sermons are thirty-five in number: they evince a truly benevolent and Christian spirit, and are characterized by all the writer's originality of thought and manner.

"Two volumes of Sermons: by the Rev. Sydney Smith, A. M. &c." 8vo. Many of these have been for some years before the public, but they appear to have been retouched. The rest are miscellaneous, and pretty generally evince the writer's political tenets—some of them indeed full as much as his theological. He is a friend to toleration in its utmost extent; and shews peculiar anxiety to liberate the Catholics of Ireland from all their political disabilities.

"Practical Sermons: by Abraham Rees, D. D. F. R. S. &c. 2 vols." 8vo. These Sermons are fifty in number: they seem studiously to avoid all doctrinal points, and as the title-page expresses, are almost exclusively confined to practical topics. Many of these topics are of the utmost moment: the style is clear and well modulated, argumentative rather than persuasive, and elegant rather than oratorical. By those who unite in Dr. Rees's religious sentiments, we

have no doubt they will be read with attention, and with profit.

"Six Sermons on the following subjects: Baptism: Confirmation: the Vows of Baptism and Confirmation: the Lord's Supper. By John Scott, A. B. Vicar of North Ferrity, &c." 12mo. The extent of this title renders it unnecessary for us to say more than that the author has fulfilled what he has undertaken with seriousness, and an affectionate concern for the best interests of man. His style is plain, and little ornamented: but his object is praiseworthy, and we wish him success.

"Sermons and other Discourses: by the late Rev. Samuel Lavington, of Bideford," 8vo. These Sermons are selected from a large portfolio of the remains of a worthy dissenting minister. They are written upon the Calvinistic system, and not always with classical correctness of style: but they discover much earnestness and fervour of heart; and are tessellated with passages of considerable pathos and spirit.

"Discourses on the Miracles and Parables of our Blessed Lord and Saviour Jesus Christ: by the Rev. William Dodd, LL. D." The author of these Sermons has long been known to the public by an ignominious death for forgery.—What could be the reason for dragging him once more into noon-day we know not: the Discourses have little more than ordinary merit, and do not appear to be judiciously selected.

Of the single sermons of the year, we perceive a considerable number, and by far the best, in point of composition, directed to the subject of propagating Christianity in India. Such is Dr. Buchanan's very admirable and spirited "Star

in the East:" Dr. Barrow's, on "The Expediency of translating our Scriptures into several of the Oriental languages;" another, on the same subject, by Mr. F. Wrangham; a third, by Mr. E. Nares; and a fourth by Mr. J. Dudley. Of the rest we may mention Mr. Wrangham's assize Sermon preached at St. Peter's cathedral, York,

entitled "The Gospel, best promoted by National Schools;" Mr. Ed. Parsons's "True Patriot," a Fast Sermon, preached at Leeds, February 8, 1809; Mr. S. Moore's "Way to Heaven delineated;" and Mr. Belsham's, "On the Death of the Rev. Theophilus Lindsey, M. A."

CHAP. II.

PHYSICAL AND MATHEMATICAL,

Comprehending Medicine and Surgery, Natural History, Agriculture, Chemistry, Experimental Philosophy, Mechanics, Mathematics, Architecture, Life Annuities, and Arithmetic.

WE shall open this chapter with noticing a work that may have a very material influence upon the aggregate health and maladies of the country: we mean the "*Pharmacopœia Collegii Regalis Medicorum Londinensis*;" and in considering its merits and contents, we shall unite with it Dr. Powell's official translation and commentary, entitled, "*The Pharmacopœia of the Royal College of Physicians of London, 1809, translated into English, with notes, &c.*"

The original work, which, as usual, is in Latin, commences with observing in its preface, that it is now nearly 22 years since the publication of the late *Pharmacopœia*; and that the present has been imposed upon the College by the daily cultivation and great perfection of natural knowledge, especially in the two branches of Chemistry and Botany, which are so intimately connected with medicine. We are told that in the prosecution of their intention, the college found many things in the late *Pharmacopœia*, that but ill accorded with the present more perfect state of the medical art, and very much that was at variance with the nomenclature that has lately been introduced into natural science. A degree of attention, it is added, has been exer-

cised upon these points; as also in regulating the measure of liquids, so as to give to this mode of division distinct terms from the measure of solids, and to graduate such divisions more accurately. We concur with Dr. Powell in the main, in regarding this preface as a specimen of elegant latinity; but when the College tell us in its opening, that they have revolved "*pharmacopœiam incudi reddere*," "to knock or hammer out their pharmacopœia anew," they appear to us to be still in the laboratory, and not sufficiently to have gotten out of the sound of the pestle and mortar.

The nature of the contents and mode of division, together with the principles that regulate the college, are best explained by the preface to the translation, which precedes that to the original work, and enters at large into its general scope and subject. It enumerates the very great pains which have been taken by the College, or rather by the committee to which the present revision has been entrusted, in order to acquire general information and accuracy. A rough draft of the object and intention of the committee was some time ago printed, and limitedly circulated amongst the most respectable mem-

bers of the profession, under the name of a *specimen*, a copy of which was received and minutely examined by the writer of this article: and we rejoice to find that the committee have very considerably improved upon what then constituted the state of their labours; as well in their general accuracy of style, and scientific references and characters, as in their omitting some articles at that time unnecessarily retained, and introducing others unfortunately omitted. The arrangement is changed from that of the old pharmacopœia, and considerably simplified: it is however far from being any thing like a systematic or even an elegant arrangement even now: but this Dr. Powell tells us is "of little importance." We differ from him *toto cælo*, and heartily wish that more attention had been paid to this subject.

Upon the point of nomenclature the committee have bestowed more pains. In natural history the Linnéan names, or such as are founded upon the Linnéan system, and in chemistry the Lavoisierian terminology is pretty accurately adhered to, and the two following regulations seem to have been laid down as points of peculiar consequence: viz. to employ the specific name alone and not the generic, whenever such specific name happens to be a substantive, and to place "the name of what is called the *base* of a salt first instead of last in order, p. xv." Upon both these points, however, we meet with a variety of anomalous and fanciful deviations. If it be right to use *anisum* instead of *pimpinella*, and *armoracia* instead of *cochlearia*, how comes it that *daucus* is used instead of *carota*, in *D. carota*, *castoreum* in-

stead of *fiber*, in *castor fiber*, and *humulus* instead of *lupulus* in *H. lupulus*? So if it be proper to write *ammonia*, *carbonas*, why not *ammonia*, *liquor*, instead of *liquor ammonia* as it stands at present? We will make another observation or two upon this subject before we quit it. Calomel is banished as incongruous with the modern state of science; but how comes *calamina* to be retained? If *hydrargyrus* should take the place of *mercurius*, why not quicksilver that of mercury in the English version? This, however, is an oversight that attaches alone to the translator. The compound preparation of lavender is properly called *spiritus*, for this ingredient does not give a tincture: but how comes it that we have a compound tincture of camphor? this also should unquestionably have been called *spiritus*. *Cetaceum* is elegantly introduced for *spermaceti*; but *chamæmelum*, or *chamomilla*, as it is sometimes written, is idly exchanged for *anthemis*, a generic name consisting of not less than thirty species. It is true the Linnéan name is *anthemis nobilis*, and *nobilis* is a term which could not have been employed: but how easily might this name have been altered to *anthemis chamæmelum*, as in truth it ought to have been called at first, in which case *chamæmelum* would have been continued in direct uniformity with the rule we have just adverted to; the translator has not chosen to follow the college upon this occasion, but has continued the *chamomile* as usual. The exchange of *augustura* for *cusparia*, is equally idle and unnecessary. MM. Humboldt and Bonpland believe they have discovered the tree that yields the *augustura* bark, which they

they promise hereafter to describe, and to call by the name of *cusparia*: but neither have they yet described it, nor has the world agreed to banish the original name in favour of the proposed term: this is not to follow but to anticipate science, and that in trifles. If such anticipation be allowable, or even if it be expedient to keep up with the actual step of discovery, we should then have had to read for *potassæ subcarbonas*, and *sodæ subcarbonas*, *potassii oxydum*, and *sodæ oxydum*; for it seems now to be pretty fairly decided that these salts are nothing more than the oxyds of the metals that have been thus named by Mr. Davy. Yet why should the name *potassa* have been introduced at all—a name grating and cacophonous to every ear—in the accurate language of the preface before us *horridum ac barbarum sonare*? What mistake or what departure from system would have resulted from continuing *kali*, or, as it might have been written, *kalia* or *kalium*? We wish most heartily that the college had shown this elegance of taste, and had set the example of banishing from science, in favour of an older and quite as correct an appellation, a term that no scholar can endure, and that is ridiculed even in the laboratory.

Of the change that has been introduced into the liquid measures we highly approve: we approve also of the terms *octarius* and *minimum*; but we are not equally pleased with the compounds *fluiduncia* and *fluidrachma*: the latter more especially is objectionable, as forming an illegitimate union between terms of different languages: whilst both are in some degree incorrect in regard

to modern science, which now appropriates the word *liquid* to express the idea which is here meant to be conveyed, and applies the word *fluid* to designate, not merely *permanent* but *gaseous* fluids, on which account, if the compound had been suffered at all, *liquid* measure should have been graduated by the *liquiduncia* and *liquidrachma*, instead of by the *fluiduncia* and *fluidrachma*. Notwithstanding these errors however—these sun-spots, if the reader please—the work is a truly valuable present to the public: nearly a hundred new articles or preparations, many of them of great elegance or intrinsic value, are introduced into it, and about an equal number expunged, which occupied a place in the late *Pharmacopœia*.

The original is beautifully printed, but is not quite free from typographical errors, and occasional omissions of forms that ought to have been introduced, and that seem afterwards to have escaped recollection. Among the former we may mention, that under the head *confectio sennæ*, the articles of *liquorice* and *refined sugar*, referred to as constituent parts of the electuary in the table of directions, are altogether left out in the list of ingredients of which it is stated to be composed: a deficiency, however, which is supplied in the translation. Among the latter, we observe, in p. 59, and in p. 60, a reference to *acetæ plumbi*, although the *Pharmacopœia* contains no form for its preparation; and leaves the reader in total darkness as to the meaning of the term. This is the more to be regretted, because the only *acetæ plumbi* with which we are yet acquainted, viz. that of the

Dublin

Dublin College, is a different preparation from the *acetæ plumbi* here referred to, the Dublin preparation of this name being here denominated *plumbi superacetæ*. These kinds of mistake, however, are by no means numerous in the original work: we wish we could say as much for the translation; but, notwithstanding, that we feel deeply indebted to Dr. Powell for his activity and judgment in having so largely promoted and conducted the *Pharmacopœia* through all its stages, and more especially for the comment to his version, we cannot avoid stating that the translation now offered is so loaded with errors as to evince a very undue degree of haste, and very considerably to detract from its general merit. We have not time to point out more than a few of these. Linnæus is sometimes called *Linnæus*, as at p. xi. pref. and sometimes *Linné*, as at p. 15. The editor of the species plantarum is sometimes spelt *Willdenhow*, as in pref. p. xxv. and sometimes, as in p. 15, *Willdenow*. In like manner Dr. Thomson's name is sometimes correctly written thus, and at other times *Thompson*. So, p. 37, we have "*linum usitatissimi semina*" for *lini*: p. 72 "carbonate of ammonia" is three lines afterwards written subcarbonate: p. 80, *potasse* for *potassæ*; p. 155 "*plumbi oxydum semi-vitreum*" is rendered "*vitrified oxyd of lead*," in p. 345 "*semi-vitreous oxyd*:" p. 47 *serum* occurs for *seum*: and in 336 the same word is written *serrum*: p. 367 "*linimentum saporis*" instead of *saponis*: p. 372 "*unguentum hydrargyri fortuis*, and *mituis*," instead of *fortius* and *mitius*: p. 434 "*stalagmatis*" for *stalagmitis*.

Closely connected herewith are

Dr. Bostock's "*Remarks on the Reform of the Pharmaceutical Nomenclature*;" and particularly on that adopted by the Edinburgh College; read before the Liverpool Medical Society." 8vo. The reformed nomenclature of the Edinburgh College preceded the foregoing of the London by four or five years, an edition having been published in 1803, which, on account of its numerous imperfections, was succeeded by another edition in 1805. The arguments advanced in the pamphlet before us go to prove, first, that it is altogether, and at all times, inexpedient and dangerous to change the names and titles of substances and preparations admitted into general medical practice, and hereby become familiar to all the different branches of the medical profession, physicians, surgeons, apothecaries and druggists; next, that the unsettled state of chemistry does not call for such a reformation, as containing nothing sufficiently permanent; and lastly, that the new terms, introduced into the pharmacopœias immediately alluded to are in many respects more incorrect than the old, whether regarded classically or scientifically. We can by no means accede to this censure in any one of the propositions before us. The prodigious changes and very extraordinary discoveries which have lately been made in chemistry (not to mention the very numerous errors of which the actual state of mineralogy, botany, and zoology has convicted the medical mineralogists, botanists, and zoologists of earlier ages), have imperatively demanded a correspondent change of language: for, in effect, all has become a jargon from the want of correspondent facts and ideas. We cannot conceive any danger likely

to arise from the introduction of new terms, and especially such as shall express more definitely the nature or affinity of the substance described. The apprehension of such danger is the mere bugbear of age and indolence: the experiment has been tried repeatedly, and no evil has to this hour been complained of; yet the more frequently it is tried, the more easy will be the habit of submitting to the task. While, however, we contend that the Edinburgh college is entitled to very great credit for leading the way in this very necessary reformation, and for the degree of excellence its labours actually possess, we have no objection to allow that in several cases the new names are inconveniently long, and in others barbarous and unclassic. Perfection must be the work of time; of deep and repeated reflection; hence the Dublin Pharmacopœia has improved upon the Edinburgh; and the London (for which we refer to the preceding article) has improved upon both.

In medical dictionaries the year has been peculiarly rich in point of number. We have had an "Edinburgh Medical and Physical Dictionary," in 2 vols 4to. published under the superintendence and editorship of Dr. Morris and Mr. J. Kendrick, Surgeon, F. L. S. — a "London Medical Dictionary" also in two vols. 4to. edited by Bartholomew Parr, M. D. F. R. S. &c. and "A Practical Dictionary of Domestic Medicine," in a bulky volume, 8vo. by Richard Reece, M. D. &c. Of the two first, which are more immediately rivals, we cannot refrain from giving the palm to the London Dictionary: it has more originality and independence: the editor generally thinks for himself, and sometimes in cases where

he does not altogether think to advantage. In the Edinburgh Dictionary we have a larger reference to established systems and opinions; but the reference is often indiscriminate, and in very many instances tedious and fatiguing. The London Dictionary chiefly fails in its surgical articles. The Domestic Dictionary has more than ordinary merit; but is a domestic dictionary alone, and aspires to no higher pretensions. It can never supplant the edition of Quincy by Dr. Hooper, in the profession, and is less philosophical as well as less extensive for family use than Willich's. It is Buchanan in an alphabetical form.

Dr. Willan has published a fourth number of his systematic work on "Cutaneous Diseases." It comprises that part of order III, or Rashes (*exanthemata*), which consists of urticaria, roseola, purpura, and erythema: together with the first part of order IV, or *Bullæ*, consisting of erysipelas, pemphigus, and pempholix. The minuteness discernible in the preceding numbers, is discernible here also; but we think there is somewhat less precision. The varieties are in several instances very insufficiently marked, as, for example, in pemphigus and pempholix, neither of which are accurately distinguished from erysipelas. The practical directions, moreover, are upon the whole too general; and the reader, after having perused them, will feel almost as much at a loss to act upon them as if he had never beheld the book.

"An Enquiry into the Laws of different epidemic Diseases, with the view to determine the Means of preserving Individuals and Communities from each; and also to ascertain the Probability of exterminating the Small-pox: by Joseph Adams,

Adams, M. D. F. L. S. &c."— This is a work addressed rather to the community than to the profession. It examines the meaning of the term contagion, and offers what, in some sort, may be called a new definition of it, but which to us is not perfectly perspicuous.

According to this definition, plague and yellow fever are not contagious; small-pox, measles, and scarlet fever are contagious; and typhus, or rather jail-fever, and poor-house fever, are less contagious than epidemic. The result of the whole is, that small-pox is contagious upon principles which apply to no other disease, and that, notwithstanding much benefit may be expected, and has actually been obtained from vaccination, the boasted prediction of its utter extermination is absurd, and incapable of accomplishment. The author denies that small-pox has augmented the number of its victims since the introduction of inoculation: and in this position we fully concur with him, and have always been astonished at the contrary assertion, so often brought forward by several of the more zealous but injudicious friends to vaccination. It has always appeared to us a mere argument *ad captandum vulgus*, equally unworthy of the benevolence of those who have used it, and of the cause in which they are engaged.

"Suggestions for the Prevention of that insidious and destructive Foe to the British Troops in the West Indies, commonly termed the Yellow Fever, &c. by Stewart Henderson, M. D. District Staff Surgeon." The yellow fever is here used with a sweeping latitude, for we are told that it is the very same thing as the bilious, remittent, and intermittent fever of the West Indies, existing in differ-

ent degrees of violence, or somewhat modified by peculiarities of constitution: we are also told that it is not imported, but generated *on the spot*; that it arises from *marsh effluvia*; and that it is not contagious. We cannot enter at length into this question, but shall only observe, that if its proper cause be marsh effluvia, and if it be generated on the spot, then many parts of Europe, nay of our own country, offering such spots and such effluvia, ought to be equally productive of it. Something, therefore, besides marsh effluvia must co-operate. The author's chief object is to *prevent* this "destructive foe," for he seems doubtful of all medical aid to overpower it when it has once made its appearance in the constitution. And in his observations upon this point there are two positions that we are particularly called to notice. The first is, that persons in full health are more subject to a severe and fatal attack by it than those of relaxed and debilitated frames; a doctrine to which we give our full assent, as having been long since observed and explained by that admirable physiologist, Mr. John Hunter. The second position is, that it would, consequently, be expedient to put the crews of the different vessels trading to the West Indies under a course of mercury, in order to reduce them to a due state of diminished irritability. To this we object *in toto*: first, because the requisite state of diminished irritability would not hereby be obtained; and next, because, all things considered, the poison of the mercury would probably prove more injurious than that of the miasm, by inducing scorbutic and other diseases of debility, and hence the remedy would be even worse than the disease.

"Remarks

“Remarks on the frequency and fatality of different Diseases, particularly on the progressive Increase of Consumption: with Observations on the Influence of the Seasons on Mortality: by William Woolcombe, M. D.” 8vo. This may be found useful as a work of statistic medicine; and, as such, is highly creditable to the author’s industry. He completely concurs with Dr. Heberden in concluding that phthisis is a disease that has of late years been continually gaining ground both in town and country; he asserts that the annual mortality of Great Britain amounts to 275,000; and that the mortality from phthisis amounts in London to rather more than a fourth of the whole, and in the country to about a fifth. At the same time it is admitted that the present annual mortality itself does not exceed that of a century ago, numbers being proportioned to numbers. It is possible that phthisis is at this moment acquiring strength, and has not reached its acme. There is a rise, maturity, and decline in the epochs of other diseases, and we see no reason why there may not be in this: rachitis has had a short run: it was scarcely known fifty years ago, and is now evidently in its decrepitude: inflammatory fever is less known now than formerly: and small-pox and syphilis are both less severe in their action. But, at the same time, we are not fully persuaded by the sort of medical tables appealed to. We believe that the term phthisis or consumption is now used more generically than it was formerly, and consequently is made to cover a great variety of deaths, which fifty years ago would have been ascribed to other maladies. A minuter atten-

tion to medical statistics is yet requisite to ascertain this important fact.

“Essay on Warm and Vapour Baths, &c. by Edward Kentish, M.D.” 8vo. The writer overshoots his mark: with *him* the warm and vapour bath is good for every thing;—the public have a short way of deciding upon this sort of assertion, and that is, by believing it to be good for nothing. This conclusion, however, is not true: for vapour bath, though not universally efficacious, and though not the cause of longevity, or of a happy and cheerful temper, either to the Russians, as is here asserted, or to any other nation, independently of other circumstances, may prove highly serviceable in many diseases both cutaneous and external. We cannot, however, subscribe to our author’s anatomical description of the skin, nor see any reason for his having crowded a medical work with a commonplace history of the battles of the Romans, Russians, and Turks.

“The Theory of Dreams: in which an inquiry is made into the Powers and Faculties of the human Mind as they are illustrated in the most remarkable Dreams recorded in sacred and prophane History.” 2 vols. 12mo. The theory here offered is drawn from the obsolete fancies of Sir Thomas Browne, who asserted that in sleep we are somewhat more than ourselves, “and that the slumbers of the body seem to be but the waking of the soul; the ligation of sense but the liberty of reason; and that our waking conceptions do not match the fancies of our sleep.” In like manner, the anonymous author of the theory before us conceives that the mind, during sleep, is roused to high and more than ordinary exertions,

ertions, in consequence of being relieved from the incumbrance of the bodily senses. Nothing, however, can be so inconsistent with every physiological observation: nothing so incongruous with the general causes of common sleep, with the phænomena of winter sleep, or with those of somnambulism. Upon this recondite subject we beg leave to refer our readers to Mr. Good's Theory, published in a long note inserted in his translation of Lucretius, vol. II. p. 139, and copied into the New Annual Register, year 1805, p. 253. We are better pleased as to the author's account of the most remarkable dreams of antiquity: as also with his observations, as to the degree of credit which is due to them as predictions of future events. The mind of man, he remarks, is not naturally endowed with the faculty of prophetic discernment, capable of operating either during sleep, or at any other time: that consequently no confidence is to be placed in any dreams or visions, except such as can be ascertained to have been communicated by inspiration: that the claim to inspiration must be rigidly confined to those dreams which were subservient to the grand scheme of revelation: and that therefore none but those which are recorded in scripture-history can be regarded as having any connexion with futurity.

"Interesting Selections from Animated Nature, with illustrative Scenery; designed and engraved by William Daniell, A. R." This is a very elegant but expensive work: the size is long folio, the plates amount to fifty: the price six guineas boards, proof impressions twelve guineas: the style of engraving is aquatint, and most of

the plates are highly and delicately finished. The letter-press descriptions are short, and of subordinate value: they are for the most part correct, so far as limits will allow.

"An Introduction to Physiological and Systematical Botany: by James Edward Smith, M.D. F.R.S. &c." 8vo. The writer of this introductory treatise has numerous claims to our attention. He is president of the Linnéan Society, and in the actual possession of the herbarium, library, and manuscripts of Linnéus himself: he has alternately filled the botanical chair at Liverpool, and at the Royal Institution, London; and has written wholly, or in part, some of the best indigenous Floras we are in possession of. Botany, the writer tells us, is divided into three branches: 1st, the physiology of plants, or a knowledge of the structure and functions of their different parts: 2ndly, the systematic arrangement and denomination of their several kinds: and lastly, their economical and medical properties. In distinguishing vegetable from animal existence, he chiefly depends upon the less proportion of azot belonging to the former, compared with its quantity of carbon; and upon an ingenious, though we fear not an universally applicable characteristic of Mirbel, "that plants alone have a power of deriving nourishment, though not indeed exclusively, from inorganic matter—mere earths, salts, or airs; substances certainly *incapable of serving as food* for any animals, the latter only feeding on what is, or has been, organized matter, either of a vegetable or animal nature; so that it should seem to be the office of vegetable life alone, to transform dead matter into organized living bodies."

Now

Now that animals, of some kinds at least, are not incapable of deriving food from the same sources, we may prove from the increment of certain fishes and worms, especially zoophytic worms, when confined to water alone; as also from the growth of toads when blocked up for years in the cavities of large masses of marble. It is the opinion of some entomologists, moreover, that many insect tribes exist upon ærial gasses alone: the opinion is plausible; and it requires to be subverted before the present distinction can be acceded to. In describing the course of the vegetable fluids, and the increase of the trunk, Dr. Smith deserts Duhamel for Mr. Knight, whose opinions, however, yet want confirmation. He rather glances at than explains the irritability or propulsive power in plants; their diseases, their economical and medical properties. In many respects the work is less complete, and less elegantly arranged than we had reason to expect from so renowned a veteran in the science. It is nevertheless well worthy of perusal; and in one respect, at least, more entitled to commendation than Willdenow's *Elements*, we mean in the very delicate and guarded language which prevails throughout the whole.

While thus adverting to the botanical labours of Dr. Smith, we cannot avoid noticing the first number or volume of his very elegant and superb *Flora Græca*, or *History of rare Plants*, collected, examined, and caused to be painted by the late Professor Sibthorp, of Oxford, between the years 1785 and 1787, while travelling upon one of the Radcliff fellowships, through Germany, Italy, and Sicily, accompanied by Ferdinand Bauer, one of

the most able and accurate botanical draftsmen in Europe; to which countries he paid a second visit, for the same purpose, in 1795. From this last excursion he returned home, exhausted by fatigue, and soon fell a sacrifice to his labours. Foresceing this event, and fearful lest the fruit of so much toil might be lost to the public, he employed himself, almost to the last day of his life, in the arrangement of his drawings and specimens. Out of those which had been collected in his first journey he selected a thousand plants, hitherto unfigured in the best English or foreign Floras; and directed in his will, that they should be published in ten volumes, folio, accompanied by a *prodromus* in octavo, without figures: and in order to defray the great expense of so magnificent a work, he conveyed to the university of Oxford a landed estate of the annual value of about 300*l.* directing that the income should first of all be appropriated to the publication of the *Flora Græca*, and afterwards be applied to found a professorship of agriculture and rural economy in the university. In the fulfilment of the first part of this patriotic design, the executors of the deceased have, most creditably to their own judgment, made choice of Dr. Smith to superintend and arrange the papers intrusted to them, and to introduce the whole before the public. We have only to add, that this office, so far as the work at present extends, has been admirably executed: the volume already printed contains the descriptions and coloured figures of a hundred plants; the engravings by Sowerby, and in his best manner. The arrangement is upon the Linnéan system; and the descriptions contain the essential characters, the synonyms of Dioscorides,

of

of the modern Greeks, of the Turks, and of modern scientific authors, together with the habitats. The first part of the prodrome is also published, and embraces the plants belonging to the first five classes. The price of the published number of the Flora is 25*l*.

“An Introduction to the Study of Cryptogamous Plants, in Letters: by Kurt Sprengel, M. D. Professor of Botany at Halle, &c.: translated from the German.” 8vo. This volume does not include all the cryptogamous orders, but only the filices, musci, and terrestrial algæ, with the exception of the genus byssus; the hepaticæ being comprized in the order musci. The letters are twenty-five: Schwark, Hedwig, and Acharius are the writer's chief authorities; but to their observations he has added many valuable ones of his own. The volume is enriched with ten coloured plates, representing very faithfully and elegantly the essential characters of all the genera described, with the exception of a few hepaticæ.

“Organic Remains of a former World. An Examination of the mineralized Remains of the Vegetables and Animals generally called extraneous Fossils: by James Parkinson.” 4to. Vol. II. On the first volume of this entertaining, but elaborate work we have already remarked: that was devoted exclusively to vegetable remains. In the present volume the author enters upon animal fossils, but confines his researches to the zoophytic tribes, reserving the rest of his subject for another volume. The zoophytes treated of are the trebipores, madreporæ, alcyonia, encrinites, and pentacrinites. We still object to the epistolary style in which this work is written: but

we hesitate not to admit, that the same familiarity of address, and intimate acquaintance with the general subject, which characterized the former volume, is equally conspicuous in the present.

“A System of Chemistry: by J. Murray, Lecturer on Chemistry, &c. Edinburgh.” 4 vols. 8vo. It is now three years since the two first volumes of this work were given to the public; and the discoveries which have since occurred in the chemical world have already rendered a few of their positions untenable and even obsolete. Yet with this exception it is a work of very high merit: it brings down the general science to the actual period in which it was written, with an accuracy and precision highly satisfactory, and which no work we are acquainted with surpasses. Its arrangement we do not altogether approve of: after a valuable introduction, it occurs as follows: attraction; imponderable substances; simple gasses, with their binary combinations; simple inflammables, and their binary combinations; undecomposed acids; metals; earths; vegetable substances; animal substances. In the present uncertain state of chemistry, it is almost as difficult to form an unexceptionable systematic arrangement, as in the department of mineralogy. Dr. Thomson's is objectionable on many accounts; yet we confess we prefer his division of the subject to that now offered. The last experiments of Mr. Davy are by no means satisfactory; and ample as is the field over which they range, they do not appear likely to produce so considerable a change in the classification of chemical elements, as his experiments upon potash and soda had induced us to expect.

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The present systems, therefore, may be expected, with a few exceptions, to hold an existence, and to continue in favour for many years to come. Mr. Murray has well treated the subject of mineralogy, so far as it is connected with chemistry: his theory is the Neptunian. Two valuable essays are added, in the form of an appendix: the one on mineral waters; the other on the formation of mineral substances, and their arrangement, as composing the structure of the globe.

Agriculture has furnished us with various works of considerable value, or respectable authority, within the limited term to which our researches extend. Among the best of these we may enumerate Dr. Coventry's "Discourses explanatory of the Object and Plan of the Course of Lectures on Agriculture and Rural Economy." The author is Professor of Agriculture in the University of Edinburgh; and the tract before us constitutes the outlines of his course of lectures. It is comprehensive, scientific, and correct. Mr. Henry Holland has given a good "General View of the Agriculture of Cheshire;" and the Rev. Arthur Young, son, as we are informed, of the Secretary of the Board of Agriculture, also a good "General View of the Agriculture of the county of Sussex." Of these two gentlemen the former appears to have the largest portion of scientific, the latter of practical knowledge. One grand object with Mr. Young is, to increase the domestic gains of the poor, whose earnings in Sussex, as in most other counties, appear inadequate to their expenses, by allowing every family land enough to support a cow, some pigs, and to grow

esculents; and, where incapable of providing for themselves, he is strongly inclined to the method of maintaining them in large bodies in a house of industry. We dissent from both these recommendations, and from practical knowledge of their fallacy. We would limit the land allowed to the poor to the purposes of garden-ground for their families, and for a few pigs alone; but, with very few exceptions, we would never encourage the keeping a cow: the ground required for this last purpose is more than ought to be spared, more time is consumed than is necessary; and we have always found it answer far better for the farmer himself to supply the poor that belong to him with milk from his own dairy, either gratis, or at a very reduced price. With respect to houses of industry, they are only to be encouraged in large and populous manufacturing towns: in all villages, and small towns, the poor, if under due regulation, may be supported much cheaper, and much more comfortably to themselves, under the roof of their friends or relations, or in their own families: the enormous expense of providing and keeping in repair a house for their reception, that of salaries to a horde of greedy, griping officers, of contracts broken almost as soon as entered into by a host of avaricious contractors, and a vast multitude of casualties are hereby excised at once; and there are but few among the poor who would not much rather receive, and be made much more comfortable by half-a-crown at home, than double the sum in a poor-house. Even in large manufacturing towns, houses of industry are seldom found to answer in the long run, notwithstanding all the plausible expectations

pectations they excite at first. It is an easy matter to draw out a plan by which five hundred or a thousand paupers may be made, under proper regulations, to provide for their own support, and more than maintain the entire establishment. But who is to take care that such regulations are, from year to year, carried into effect? The general result of all such institutions has been as follows: The idea is caught up universally by the inhabitants when first suggested to them by some ardent and visionary character; and every householder looks forward to the period in which the enormous burden of his parochial rates will cease altogether. A large plot of ground is immediately purchased; a superintending committee is formed; an extensive and expensive range of buildings is constructed; officers of every description are engaged; the trades of spinning, rope-making, shoe-making, basket-making, weaving, and perhaps printing, are at once introduced into the establishment; proper masters, with distinct salaries, are allotted; the voluminous materials and tools for these respective businesses are purchased; the money is raised by bonds upon the associated parish-rates, which are mortgaged for this purpose; and the manufactured articles are carried to market and disposed of at an adequate profit. All proceeds swimmingly for the first two or three years; and the utmost hopes of the parishioners seem likely to be realized immediately; but some of the superintending committee relax in their attendance, some die, some are removed and succeeded by others: the books, and the whole concern, by degrees, become intrusted to the officers of the establishment, or the masters

of the different trades. Self-interest is now the only active principle; the officers and the task-masters, indeed, thrive, but the establishment which supports them is on the wane: the income is soon discovered to be infinitely below the expense incurred; and at last, not to mention bad debts to an enormous extent, the returns not only do not maintain the poor who are employed, but do not even pay for the expense of the raw materials, and the salaries of those who purchase them, and superintend their application. In justification of these remarks, we may allude to Shrewsbury, and we might allude to various other places. A renovation of energy sometimes, indeed, follows; but it follows only for a short period; there is not a sufficient personal interest in the individuals of the committee to maintain it: the same natural relaxation again takes place, and is followed by the same ruin.

“A Treatise on Hemp: including a comprehensive Account of the best Modes of Cultivation and Preparation, as practised in Europe, Asia, and America; with Observations on the Sun Plant of India, &c.: by Robert Wisset, Esq. F.R.S. and F.A.S.” 4to. If this work were curtailed of its innumerable repetitions, and digested into a more systematic and readable form, it would be found useful; for it contains a great variety of valuable matter, but so strangely interspersed with matter of no value whatever, and with an immense mass of matter altogether foreign to the subject, that in its present state, none but a F.A.S. can reasonably be supposed to possess sufficient patience to wade through it. The treatise is accompanied by five plates, the first three botanical, and well

well executed; the last two mechanical, and illustrative of the processes of scutching and heckling.

“Observations on the Influence of Soil and Climate upon Wool; from which is deduced a certain and easy Method of improving the Quality of English clothing Wools, and preserving the Health of Sheep: with Hints for the Management of Sheep after Shearing: an Enquiry into the Structure, Growth, and Formation of Wool and Hair: and Remarks on the Means by which the Spanish Breed of Sheep may be made to preserve the best Qualities of its Fleece unchanged in different Climates. By Robert Bakewell, with occasional Remarks, by the Right Honourable Lord Somerville.” 8vo. This is a truly national and highly valuable work. The author conceives that much of the fineness and silky feel of wool depends upon the soil on which it is grown, and that the best soil for this purpose is argillaceous, and, next to this, siliceous; while calcareous soils yield a wool of remarkable hardness to the touch. It is some objection, however, to this theory, that the best Spanish Merinos are for the most part fed on chalky mountains. In his physiological account of the nature of wool, hair, silk, feathers and horn, the author discovers a creditable knowledge of animal chemistry: the sources, however, from which he draws his information are not so late or so precise as he might have had recourse to: Lewenhoeck was an accurate examiner in his day, and Monge was one of the first who drew our attention to this subject in modern times; but to these names Mr. Bakewell ought by all means to have added that of our excellent and ingenious countryman Mr. Hatchet;

whose single experiments and observations are of more value than all those of his predecessors collectively. Mr. Bakewell gives several very useful rules for determining the choice of Merinos in improving our indigenous stock: he also recommends a trial of the Saxon sheep, and those of Buenos Ayres; as also the introduction into our own country of a breed of oxen found near Hudson's Bay, with a finer and softer wool than that of the Vicuna: he thinks both these animals well adapted to the climate of England, and that they would prove not more useful on account of their wool than of their flesh, which is equal to venison. We cannot consent to quit this important subject without remarking as a fact, but little known at present, that much of the wool now growing in New South Wales, and especially at the settlement of Paramatta, is superior in fineness to the best Spanish Merino, and apparently of a more durable quality. The writer of this article is in possession of some cloth manufactured (and the first that has ever been manufactured) from the New South Wales fleece, unmixed with any other wool whatever, and which is admitted by every one who has seen it to possess this superiority of softness and silkiness to the touch. The Paramatta sheep are a mixt breed, obtained partly from Rio Janeiro, and partly from the Cape of Good Hope.

“Practical and Descriptive Essays on the Art of Weaving. By John Duncan.” 8vo. The writer of these Essays is already favourably known to the public as the inventor of the patent tambour machine: and he will not lose the favour he has acquired, by the present work. He has entered
more

more generally into the subject than most writers in publications of this kind; for as the art of weaving is one of those which owes much of its modern perfection to a division of labour, it commonly happens that the man who is practically acquainted with one of the processes, is totally ignorant of the rest. We here meet with a full explanation of plain weaving, and the machinery connected with it; of twilled, or as the author calls it, *twceled*-cloth-weaving, both diaper and table-cloths; of double-cloth and carpet-weaving; of cross-weaving, comprehending that of gauze, cat-gut, patent-net, balloon, and other nets; of spot-weaving, whether brocade, pressed, or double-frame-lappets. The whole of the machinery is as neatly described as the different modes of processes, and, in most instances, is illustrated by well-executed plates, the whole of which amount to fourteen. In looms for strong work, and where the friction between the teeth of the comb and the harness is so great as to wear away the latter in a short time, the writer, very judiciously, recommends wires instead of cords: and especially in looms for twilling, for double-cloth, and for carpets: and we have no doubt that the saving, by such a substitute, would be very considerable: the expense of mounting draw-looms is prodigious; the time occupied by a single man in preparing a loom, usually amounts to upwards of ninety days; yet the ends, if fine, can seldom, with the utmost care, be made to last more than eight months.

“A Treatise on the progressive Endeavours to improve the Manufacture of Cordage: with a Description of the Means of causing

Ships to ride at Anchor with greater Safety: by W. Chapman, Esq. F. R. S.” In a small compass we find here brought together a very great portion of useful matter upon the important subjects specified in the title-page. The various patents taken out at different times for improving the manufacture of cordage, or rendering it more easily applicable to particular purposes, are here noticed in their different specifications, which amount to not fewer than twenty-seven, even since the year 1783. One of the chief improvements proposed in the tract before us, is a less degree of lightness in the general twist of ropes than that usually given: another, and of still greater consequence, is the depriving the tar employed of its injurious qualities, or, in other words, of its vegetable acid, by repeated boilings in water; and when, hereby, become very thick and pitchy, by restoring to it a requisite degree of elasticity, by the addition of substances less injurious and less volatile, as, for instance, tallow, or other animal oils; of all which whale-oil appears to answer best. Thus prepared, cordage is found to last nearly twice as long as when prepared in the common way. Mr. Chapman has also some valuable observations on coarse wools, as a basis for cordage and sail-cloth; but though in particular circumstances such a basis may be employed with advantage, yet it offers nothing that can be likely to be introduced as a general substitute. We also find several good observations on the use of chains, both for slinging yards and mooring vessels, for which a patent was taken out by Mr. John Slater in 1804. The tract closes with a statement of one or two ingenious methods of reducing

ducing the effects of the shock of waves upon vessels at anchor.

Among the *mathematical* productions of the year we are pleased to find a translation of La Place's very elaborate "System of the World," by Mr. Pond: yet we had reason to expect, from the abilities Mr. Pond has already exhibited to the world, that this translation would have been freer from defective language, and more in unison with the chaste, and simple, and classical style of the original than we are compelled to assert that it is. Had we time, we could easily point out a variety of important omissions, numerous and extraordinary mistakes, and a great multitude of awkward expressions, which are chargeable to the translator alone. In another edition we shall hope to see these evils remedied; and we trust that another edition will be soon called for; as there is no mathematical work, since the *Principia* of Newton, which can be put in competition with the present: an observation which will apply to the authors of these works, as well as to the works themselves.

"Mathematical Tables, containing the Logarithms of Numbers; Tables of Sines, Tangents, and Secants, both natural and logarithmic, to every Minute of the Quadrant; a Table of Versed Sines, both natural and logarithmic, to every minute of the semicircle: a table of sexagesimal parts, to every second minute; and every two-third minutes, reduced to the denomination of a first minute; and supplementary tables. To which is prefixed a particular account of the nature and use of logarithms of numbers, sines, tangents, secants, and versed sines, with the manner of their forma-

tion: by George Douglas." 8vo. This title-page is sufficient to serve as a syllabus of the entire work. Mr. Douglas has fulfilled his promise in a manner that would have been creditable to himself, had he exhibited something less of egotism and vanity, and a supercilious contempt of the best mathematicians of the day; and had he been more attentive to grammatical and orthographic correctness.

"The Practical Mathematician, containing Logarithms, Geometry, Trigonometry, Mensuration, Algebra, Navigation, Spherics, and Natural Philosophy: illustrated by Copper-plate Engravings; and to render it peculiarly adapted to Schools, nearly six hundred practical Questions are included: by John Sabine." 12mo. Here, too, we meet with many grammatical and some orthographical errors; but upon the whole, Mr. Sabine has ingeniously contrived to comprise a great quantity of useful matter into a short compass; and his operations appear to be performed with accuracy.

"An Essay on the Theory of the various orders of Logarithmic Transcendents; with an Enquiry into their Applications to the Integral Calculus, and the Summation of Series: by William Spence." 4to. We can safely recommend this essay as the production of an able analyst, though we do not remember to have seen his name in the list of national mathematicians before. He is clear, comprehensive, and accurate; and we heartily wish him success.

"A Treatise of the Properties of Arches and their Abutment Piers; containing Propositions for describing geometrically the Catenaria, and the Extra-dosses of all Curves,

Curves, so that their several Parts and their Piers may equilibrate; also concerning Bridges, and the flying Buttresses of Cathedrals. To which are added, in illustration, Sections of Trinity Church, Ely; King's College Chapel, Cambridge; Westminster Abbey; Salisbury, Ely, Lincoln, York, and Peterborough Cathedrals. By Samuel Ware." 8vo. The wedge theory of arches which was, a few years back, brought once more into notice by Mr. Attwood, has since died with him, and is not likely to be revived again, or again to supplant the vertical theory. Our author states several objections to the former principles, but none which we have not seen more correctly stated by former writers. In his observations on the ecclesiastical arch, we do not meet with any thing of great novelty or importance.

"An Historical Survey of the Ecclesiastical Antiquities of France, with a View to illustrate the Rise and Progress of Gothic Architecture in Europe: by the late Rev. G. D. Whittington." 4to. This is the work of a young but ardent votary of ecclesiastic antiquities, who died in 1807, aged twenty-six: he writes like a man of intelligence and a gentleman; and

though we dissent from his opinion in attributing the first rise of what is usually understood by Gothic Architecture to France, instead of to our own country, we readily admit that the volume before us contains much information of a truly literary as well as agreeable kind.

On the subject of annuities, we have received several productions, and shall notice the two following: Mr. Baily's on the "Doctrine of Interest and Annuities, analytically investigated and explained;" exhibiting a mathematical taste, formed on good models, and especially that kind of mathematical knowledge which is peculiarly adapted to the subject: and Mr. Fortune's "National Life Annuities; comprising all the Tables, and every necessary Information contained in the Act of Parliament for granting the same." The tables are nine in number: the calculations appear to be accurate, and the pamphlet is neatly and correctly printed.

In Arithmetic we have nothing worthy of recommendation: Mr. Chambers has furnished us with an "Introduction," too concise for any practical purpose; and Mr. Tate with a "System of Practical Arithmetic," in which the only novelty is a new coinage of terms.

CHAPTER III.

MORAL AND POLITICAL.

Comprising History, Voyages, Travels, Topography, Politics, Military Exploits, Finance; and Law.

THE period that circumscribes our labours has not been characterised by historical works of very prominent merit. Mr. Southey's *Chronicles of the Cid* deserve perhaps our first notice, though only a translation from the Spanish original. In our own country, and indeed throughout Europe generally, the name of the Cid is better known from Corneille's drama thus denominated, than from any part of the actual history of this extraordinary adventurer. The Cid, or Campeador, was Don Rodrigo Diaz de Bivar. The history opens about the period in which christianized Spain consisted of five kingdoms, Arragon, Leon, Navarre, Castille, and Galicia. The three latter had been possessed by Fernando, who, dying A. D. 1065, bequeathed them to his three sons. Mutual jealousy and ambition excited warfare between the coheirs of Fernando: the Cid was at this time an officer in the army of Don Sancho, King of Navarre, and he soon distinguished himself by his martial exploits, and especially in releasing the king, his master, in a bloody engagement with his brothers, from having been taken prisoner, and afterwards in enabling him to unite in his own person the entire sovereignty of christian Spain. The Cid, in all his exploits, evinced the most honourable fealty to this monarch, not

only during the whole of his lifetime, but even after his death, by refusing to do homage to his brother Alphonso upon his succeeding to the united crown, in consequence of being implicated in the death of Sancho. The work before us, therefore, narrates the series of military adventures in which this renowned chieftain was engaged. It is highly interesting in various points of view: being drawn from some of the oldest records of Spanish history; as containing a rich and entertaining display of the manners and transactions of the chivalric epoch, during the eleventh century; and as delineating what appears to be a faithful picture of the Moorish as well as of the Christian courts of Spain, at that time in co-existence. The work before us is not drawn from one source only, but from several, for the Spaniards have various ancient histories of this extraordinary character both in prose and poetry. The best prose account is the *Chronicle of the Cid*, printed in the *Cronica General de España*, said to have been compiled by King Alonzo the Wise, about the close of the thirteenth century, and about a century and a half after the death of the Cid. The best metrical history is the *Poema del Cid*, published by Sanchez in his *Collecison de Poesias Castellanas Anteriores al Siglo XV.* it is a fragment consisting of 3744 lines:

and is supposed by Sanchez to have been composed about the middle of the twelfth century, about half a century after the hero's decease. Mr. Southey, from some passages it contains, inclines to believe it the work of a contemporary with the Cid: but the passages are hardly strong enough to support such an opinion. From these resources chiefly the present version is compiled: the *Chronicle* constituting the principal text-book. Prefixed to the translation, Mr. Southey has given us a short history of Spain before the appearance of the Cid. It is ably drawn up; offers a good account of the rise and spirit of mahommedism, and exhibits some of those striking incidents in the history of the moorish kings of Spain, which render the events of this period so highly interesting. Upon the whole this work is a valuable addition to the literature of our own country.

"A Collection of scarce and valuable Tracts on the most interesting and entertaining Subjects: but chiefly such as relate to the History and Constitution of these Kingdoms. Selected from an infinite number in print and manuscript, in the Royal, Cotton, Sion, and other public as well as private libraries, particularly that of the late Lord Somers. The second edition, revised, augmented, and arranged," by Walter Scott, Esq. vol. I. 4to. The value of the tracts here offered to the public, and the difficulty of obtaining copies of the original edition of those properly belonging to Lord Somers, fully justify us; as we conceive, in departing from our usual custom, and noticing a second edition. We may add also, that we are still further justified by the high talents and well-

known character of the editor; hitherto indeed chiefly celebrated as a poet, but who has sufficiently proved himself, by a variety of comments, and especially those on his own "Minstrelsy of the Scottish Border," to be possessed of all that historical knowledge of former times, which is so requisite in an undertaking of the present kind. The new arrangement we approve highly: it is founded on the following principles. "1st. A chronological classification and division of the tracts under the reigns of the different monarchs of England, regulating the precedences of the essays by the date of the subject rather than the publication. As there are but few tracts prior to the reign of Elizabeth, these are thrown together without subdivision, as preliminary to the collection. 2nd. From the time of Elizabeth downwards, the tracts of each reign are divided, according to their subject, into four classes, under the distinct heads of ecclesiastical, civil, military, and miscellaneous. The last division is intended to contain all those pamphlets which do not naturally belong to any of the preceding branches of history. It must be obvious that although the lines of distinction here laid down are, generally speaking, plain and decided, yet some tracts, from the variety of subject of which they treat, may be ascribed, with equal propriety, to more than one class. Where such occasion of doubt occurred, the editor has exercised the best of his judgment; and any mistake he has committed may be rectified by reference to the table of contents, and the index. 3d. The tracts in each subdivision are arranged, either with reference to the subjects which they regard, or when

when totally unconnected, in the order of chronology." Independently of this new and certainly improved arrangement, Mr. Scott has prefixed historical introductions to most of the pieces in the book, after the example of those in the Harleian Miscellany: he has also occasionally added notes and illustrations at the bottom of the pages; and a few pieces, not found in the original edition, but which have some connection with the adjoining pieces, or are entitled to a republication from their rarity. Some of these additional pieces might, we think, have been omitted without any essential loss to the work: the historical introductions, and miscellaneous notes, are truly valuable, and highly entertaining as well as instructive.

"Annals of Great Britain, from the Accession of George III. to the Peace of Amiens." 3 vols. 8vo. This is a neat, succinct, and, upon the whole, well-compacted sketch of a most important and eventful period, not of Europe alone, but of the world, for it has brought to birth some of the most stupendous revolutions in each of the four quarters of it, which are to be found in all history: we mean the emancipation of America, the subjugation of the Deccan, and the control of all India by the English East India Company, the revolution of France and all Germany, and the abolition of the African slave-trade. The full effect of this last most salutary and important measure, was not indeed effected till a year or two subsequent to the transaction with which the "annals" before us close, but it was led to by many preparatory steps, and legislative acts, as well as discussions, and its accomplishment long anticipated. The author is

upon the whole, however, a better writer than a statesman: he composes with spirit, his periods are for the most part neatly and roundly turned, his details are correct; but we too frequently look in vain for those philosophical and masterly reflections which constitute the most valuable part of history, and develope causes, or deduce results, which may serve as beacons to successive generations.

"The Private History of the Court of England." 2 vols. 12mo. This is also, like the last, an anonymous publication: and it contains the archness of a political wit rather than the gravity of a political chronicler. The writer has disguised the highest characters of the present age under the mask of ancient times; and has thus ventured to satirize personages of the first rank, whose moral conduct has of late exposed them to something rather heavier than the rebuke of his own lash.

"Letters from the Swedish Court, written chiefly in the early Part of the Reign of Gustavus III., to which is added an Appendix, containing an Account of the Assassination of that Monarch." 8vo. We suspect that fiction is here blended with fact; yet the letters are interesting, and they relate to subjects, many of which have made an impression on the public of our own country as well as of Sweden, and will not soon be forgotten. The writer or compiler discovers in his appendix a very competent acquaintance with the historical epoch and events that form the basis of the work; yet his style is often uncourtly, and a few of the incidents, if we remember aright, are incorrectly related.

"An Historical Review of the
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Commercial, Political, and Moral State of Hindustan, from the earliest period to the present time, &c by Robert Chatfield, LL.B. Vicar of Chatteris in Cambridge-shire." 4to. The subject here undertaken to be discussed is equally extensive and important; the work itself, however, does not move quite quadrilaterally with the title. It is rather polemic than political or commercial, and is purposely designed to comment on "the rise and progress of Christianity in the East, its present condition, and the means and probability of its future advance:" and has doubtless a reference to the question which has so often been brought before the public of late, whether Christianity ought or ought not to be propagated among the Hindus? This question is so nicely weighed in the balance before us, that it is not perfectly easy to ascertain to which side the writer inclines in his heart: yet a little attention will show that he neither wishes for the attempt, nor expects much benefit from it. For ourselves we have reason to believe that the difficulties have been by far too much aggravated. The massacre at Vellore has been advanced as a convenient incident in the drama, rather than established as a fact directly growing out of the undertaking: the individuals do not appear in the present day to be so insuperably attached to their respective casts as in former periods—more so, we admit, than the Ceylonese, but by no means so much so, as those would persuade us who are adverse to the trial; most certainly less so in the present day than when Islamism was introduced into the country, which nevertheless, either by force or persuasion, has been able to establish itself, and to produce innu-

merable hosts of converts. Yet it is highly probable that missions may be undertaken more advantageously in various other quarters; chiefly, perhaps, in that extensive cluster of islands in the Pacific, which has of late years been denominated Polynesia, where the natural dexterity of the inhabitants induces them to attend readily to the superior handicrafts and other arts of the Europeans, and over whom this very superiority will in the first instance supply the place of miracles, and convert them to the faith and morals of Christianity through the very medium of mechanical and agricultural instruction. It is but of late years, however, that the missionary societies of Europe have discovered the true, and indeed the only mode of accomplishing their benevolent intentions; and, instead of sending abroad a few dozen of needy adventurers, for the sole purpose of preaching the gospel, in which none of them perhaps are comprehensively versed, while at the same time, none of them make even a pretension to any other kind of knowledge, have selected good mechanics and husbandmen, of unblameable moral character, to prove the truth of that important maxim of Lord Bacon, that "knowledge is power," and thus to acquire an ascendancy over their minds by establishing their own superior, and, to them, stupendous intelligence.

We proceed to the *voyages and travels* of the year: foremost among which stand those of George Viscount Valentia "to India, Ceylon, the Red Sea, Abyssinia, and Egypt, in the years 1802, 1803, 1804, 1805, and 1806." 3 vols. 4to. royal paper 9*l.* 9*s.*: imperial 12*l.* 12*s.* We have read these, (as who has not read them?) with much

much attention, and upon the whole with some improvement, and considerable entertainment. We admire the spirited and patriotic motive which induced this ardent nobleman to engage in so extensive and hazardous an expedition, and the honourable uniformity with which he has supported the national character. We will not, with some of the more sarcastic of our profession, assert that the example is *unique*, for we have a far better opinion of the general taste for scientific improvement, which has long been gaining ground among the higher and more opulent, as well as among the middling ranks, and such as are dependent upon their own talents alone for fame and fortune; but we, at least, affirm, that it offers an example well worthy of copying, not only among the nobility, but among the higher classes of every description among our countrymen. It has been said that the work affords nothing original: after so many intelligent travellers and voyagers as have already preceded Lord Valentia, and given us an account of their expeditions, it is hardly fair to look for any great portion of original matter: some however we have found; and what is, perhaps, of more consequence, we have also found the noble voyager sufficiently acquainted with general and local history to decide upon the comparative accuracy of different travellers to the same places, who have varied in their reports; we have found him extensively versed in natural history, a sound philosopher, and an enlightened politician. In his knowledge of nature, however, we have perceived in various instances that he is a better botanist than zoologist; and

in political history we have more than once had occasion to correct his recollection. There is an entertaining account of the Waheb family in the second volume, p. 393, in which one instance, and rather a striking one, of this defect of memory, or mistake of real history, stares us fully in the face: we will epitomise it as succinctly as we are able: about half a century ago, a successful Arabian adventurer, named Abdul Waheb, of the Arabian province of Nedjed, a man of unquestionable science and talents, professed himself a reformer of the Mussulman practice. He succeeded in his own province, raised himself to sovereign power, and so far extended his conquests that, under his son Abduluzziz, and his grandson Soud, almost the whole of Arabia has progressively fallen into the possession of this dynasty. Mecca was entered by Soud, April 27, 1803: the tombs of the holy city were destroyed under pretence that they encouraged idolatry. Medina has since fallen under the same power: the authority of the Sultan has been rejected, and “the *descendant of Mahomet*,” observes our author, “has ceased to be the head of the Mussulman religion.” The order of the prophet that his followers should once in their lives visit Mecca can no longer be performed. “The sacred city has heard the din of hostile arms; and is in possession of a prince *who denies to Mahomet* that veneration which he has received for twelve hundred years. *His descendants will soon cease to reign*: and although the Koran may be revered for a longer period throughout a portion of Asia, the mighty fabric of Islamism must be considered as having passed away from the moment that

that Soud entered Mecca on the 27th of April, 1803." If this were actually and historically true, it would indeed form a very extraordinary coincidence and coetaneity with the downfall of popery, which we may fairly ascribe to the very same period. But unfortunately the leading features of the picture are by no means true, and we are surprized that so glaring a mistake has not hitherto been noticed by any contemporary reviewer. It is a gross error, in the first place, to suppose that the Ottoman dynasty are descendants of Mahomet, either directly or collaterally, and consequently that the reigning Sultan, the head of the Ottoman dynasty and of the Mahometan religion, is a descendant of his. The mode by which the Ottoman dynasty acquired ascendancy in the spiritual concerns of Islamism is, in few words, as follows: Othman, the generalissimo of Aladin Sultan of Iconium, on the death of his master usurped his throne, and laid the foundation of the Ottoman Turks: he obtained from the Caliph, the direct descendant of Mahomet, and the acknowledged head of the Mussulman religion, who lived at this time in an humiliated situation in Egypt, a patent to be Sultan of Romania, Greece and Thrace: Constantinople was added to this by the conquest of one of his descendants, fourth in the succession; and upon an application of Selim I. another of his descendants in the succession, the dignity of Caliph or head of the church was renounced in his favour by Mahomet the 12th, Ebn Dgiafer, the Caliph of Egypt, and the descendant in a legitimate line from Mahomet; the Sheriff of Mecca presenting him at the same time

with the keys of the Kaaba, or Square House at Mecca, on a silver plate: which formal cession to Selim is considered to have transmitted the rights of the Mahometan race to the Ottoman princes, and to have fully supplied in their favour *the want of hereditary blood*. The descendants of Mahomet, therefore, instead of *ceasing to reign soon*, have actually ceased not only to reign but to have any pretensions to church supremacy ever since the beginning of the sixteenth century. And, secondly, the Waheb dynasty, instead of intending by their conquest of Arabia, and possession of the holy city, to subvert the religion of Mahomet, only profess to restore it to its pristine purity: they object, unquestionably, to the legitimacy of the Ottoman dynasty, as heads of the Mahometan church, but they by no means object to the church itself, of which they are votaries, and in truth more rigid Mussulmans than the Turks.—Before we quit this amusing work, we cannot forbear to pay our respects to Mr. Salt, his lordship's secretary, and to thank him for the very high treat we have derived, not only from his numerous and admirably executed drawings, but for that part of the letter-press (and a very considerable and important part it is) which is the result of his separate communications. The work is elegantly printed, but we have noticed a multitude of typographical errors, which we trust will be corrected in another edition. One of these is rather a ludicrous one, vol. I. p. 95, "I agreed to *die* with him," says Lord Valentia: from what follows, however, we learn that nothing so serious was ever intended, and that his lordship only agreed

"agreed to *dine*" with his friend, instead of to *die* with him.

"An Account of the Empire of Marocco, and the District of Suse, compiled from miscellaneous observations made during a long residence in, and various Journeys through these Countries. To which is added an accurate and interesting Account of Timbuctoo, the great Emporium of central Africa: by James Grey Jackson, Esq." 4to. This is also a very interesting and entertaining account. The additional matter indeed, concerning Tombuctoo, or as the author affects to spell it, *Timbuctoo*, as he does *Marocco*, for Morocco, and *Fas* for Fez, is not an original history, or drawn from Mr. Jackson's personal knowledge, but merely from the authority of other writers and travellers. Yet from his long residence in different parts of western Africa as a merchant, and numerous and respectable connexions at Mogador, from which the Tombuctoo caravan commences its journey, he has possessed an opportunity, of which he has freely and to a most valuable purpose availed himself, of obtaining information concerning this extraordinary empire of blacks, in several respects beyond what has reached us from any other quarter. Mr. Jackson, though a merchant, has shewn as truly philosophical and comprehensive an intellect as if he had devoted himself exclusively to scientific pursuits: there is an air of mystery in some of his descriptions, and of exaggeration in others, that we cannot fully understand, but we are very ready to make allowances for the peculiar manners of the country, and the very flowery language in which common occurrences are represented, and, in many instances, to lay the apparent excess to this

score. As a natural historian Mr. Jackson appears also in a very respectable light in general; yet when he tells us, as he does in p. 51, that "*locusts are produced from some unknown physical cause*," we are again compelled to confess that either we do not exactly understand him, or that he himself does not exactly understand his subject. His account of the terrible hardships sustained by European slaves, made captive in consequence of ships stranded on the sandy shores of the Saara, has ample marks of verity, and the means he has pointed out by which they might speedily be redeemed and restored to their respective countries, are entitled to serious attention. The volume is said to be *illustrated* by engravings; but the aqua-tints are for the most part so miserably executed, that the term *illustrated* can only apply in the sense in which *lucus* is formed *à non lucendo*.

"Notes on the Viceroyalty of La Plata, in South America; with a Sketch of the Manners and Character of the Inhabitants, collected during a Residence in the City of Monte Video. By a Gentleman recently returned from it." 8vo. The title is incorrect: the notes relate almost exclusively to that part of the viceroyalty which is constituted by Monte Video and its vicinity, the writer giving no account of Buenos Ayres, and having had no opportunity of visiting it. Monte Video contains, according to this anonymous writer, twenty thousand inhabitants; it is built on a peninsular rock, on the extremity of a spacious bay, and is capable of being rendered impregnable. The streets are wide and perfectly straight, intersecting each other at right angles. The houses, for the most part, consist only of ground-floors;

floors: they are warmed, by brazeros filled with charcoal, around which the whole family hover, at the hazard of suffocation. The luxury of glass windows is confined to the principal houses. The ground on which the city stands is so rocky that no wells have ever been sunk. The inhabitants are universally and immoderately fond of *maté*, tea, coffee, or chocolate being rarely used; and an infusion of this herb is the favorite beverage at all times of the day. The market is abundantly supplied with every species of meat and poultry, and with a great variety of fish. Fruits are also in abundance, and exquisitely delicious: the inhabitants are jovial, sensual, ignorant, and filthy. All this may be true, and probably is so: but when the writer tells us of the great popularity of the English, asserting that two thirds of the inhabitants are friendly to them; that Sir Samuel Achmuty, who has affirmed directly the reverse in his public evidence, gave an erroneous character of the inhabitants, that his intelligence was received through incorrect and uncertain channels, that he had no knowledge from personal observation or familiar intercourse; and finally, that the news of our repulse at Buenos Ayres seemed, without exaggeration, to be felt more severely by them than by ourselves—we confess we not only want faith to credit so unaccountable a story, but feel distrustful of several other statements in the general history from this very circumstance.

“History of Brazil, &c. by Andrew Grant, M. D.” Svo. This history is statistic, instead of being chronological: it is also a compilation, instead of being an original work. It affects to offer a geographical account of the country,

together with a narration of the most remarkable events that have occurred there since its discovery; a description of the manners, customs, religion, &c. of the natives and colonists; interspersed with remarks on the nature of its soil, climate, productions, and foreign and internal commerce: and pretends to subjoin cautions to new settlers for the preservation of health. So far as the writer has been able to extract passages and hints from Lindley, and Staunton, from Colinks, Raynal, Levy, and Nienhoff, that would favour his general purpose, so far he has been tolerably successful: but he should have shewn more gratitude than he has done, to those to whom he is so much indebted, by referring to their names, and openly acknowledging his obligations.

“The Travels of Captains Lewis and Clarke from St. Louis, by way of the Missouri and Columbia Rivers to the Pacific Ocean, performed in the years 1804, 1805 and 1806 by Order of the Government of the United States, &c.” Svo. By turning to Chapter III. of the Foreign Literature of the present volume, the reader will find an account of a “Journal of the Voyages and Travels of a Corps of Discovery under the command of Captain Lewis and Captain Clarke, &c. by Patrick Gass, one of the persons employed in the expedition.” It is from this previous and incondite work of Patrick Gass that the work before us, professing to be the actual travels of Captains Lewis and Clarke, is chiefly copied, the interesting matter consisting of selections from Carver, Mackenzie, Dunbar, Hunter, and even Robertson; a grosser imposition we have seldom seen attempted. Whenever Captain Lewis may consent to furnish

furnish the public with an autographic account of his very interesting expedition and adventures, we shall peruse it with the utmost attention. In the mean while we must rest satisfied with the jejune pages of his ship-mate, honest Patrick, and shall certainly not sacrifice them to the hollow but more imposing promises of the present work.

“Travelling Sketches in Russia and Sweden during the years 1805, 1806, 1807, 1808: by Robert Ker Porter.” 2 vols. 4to. The course of Mr. Porter’s excursion was by Denmark to Russia, where he remained till hostilities commenced between that country and our own, when he returned by Sweden. He writes with spirit, and close observation: but his spirit is often intermixed with ranting enthusiasm, and his observation too frequently tempts him to describe as minutely objects and events of no moment whatever, as he does those of the highest magnitude and importance. He is a picturesque writer as well as a picturesque painter, and lays on his masses of light and shade in too many instances rather for the purpose of effect than of truth or natural elegance. His style is rather that of the heart than of the head, it is always warm and glowing, but seldom critically, and sometimes not even grammatically correct. His descriptions of St. Petersburg and Moscow are, however, very excellently drawn; he writes as he sees, and he omits nothing that he ought to see. Upon the whole he has furnished us with two very amusing if not very recondite volumes: and if the philosopher and politician discard him from their tables, he will at least find a welcome post in our circulating libraries and parlour windows.

“Caledonian Sketches: or a

Tour through Scotland in 1807: to which is prefixed an explanatory Address to the Public upon a recent Trial: by Sir John Carr.” 4to. The character we have given of the preceding work may be applied with little variation to the present. We have the same spirit and attention to the surrounding scenery, and the same tendency to hyperbolical description. Edinburgh, however, is well delineated; but it is for Perth and the adjoining country that the good-natured knight reserves the full powers of his pen. “The road to Perth,” says he, “is extremely good, and the country presented an appearance of increased luxury and cultivation as I advanced. Wood and corn-fields, hill and dale, every where gladdened the eye: and the looks and habits of the peasantry seemed to correspond with the flourishing gaiety of the surrounding scenery. The superb plain of Gowrie, extending for nearly twenty miles, opened in the most unexpected and beautiful manner. A short distance from Perth the windings of the Tay, the bridge uniting the rich and romantic country on either side, the handsome appearance of the town, the cavalry barracks, and an expanded view behind, offer to the eye the most enchanting prospect. When Agricola and his army first beheld the Tay, and the adjacent plain, upon which Perth at present stands, it is recorded that they exclaimed with one voice, “Ecce Tibur! Ecce Campus Martius! Behold the Tibur! Behold the Field of Mars!” The Italians afterwards called the Tay the New Tibur.” There are a few historical and geographical errors that have struck us in perusing this work; but we are surprised that there are not more, considering the rapidity with which

Sir John Carr compiles, not to say any thing of the rapidity with which he *travels*. He has been accused indeed of not travelling at all, and of merely giving his tours, sketches, and excursions, from a London drawing-room. We cannot credit this: we certainly think that he writes too fast, and expatiates too far: but there is an occasional originality in his descriptions, and an unbroached source of humour in his anecdotes, which clearly prove him to have paid at least short visits to the places that figure in his title-pages, while the copiousness of his descriptions prove that he has not visited them in vain, and the general serenity of his style, induces us to thank him for having visited them at all. The plates which accompany this volume (twelve in number) are both interesting and excellent: and do high credit to the elegance of his taste, and the correctness of his pencil. We are provoked with him, however, for his explanatory address. The public have already had enough of his trial, and are not disposed to reverse their genuine judgment. The knight was, in many respects, fair-game. The present work (in our opinion the best he has written) shews abundantly that he has profited by the rod; and it would have been far more to his credit that he should have kissed it and been quiet, than that he should thus have run about the town with the badge of his disgrace upon his shoulders.

“Travels through the South of France and in the Interior of the Provinces of Provence and Languedoc, in the Years 1807 and 1808, by a Route never before performed: made by Permission of the French government, by Lieutenant Colonel Pinkney, of the North American Rangers.” 4to.

This is one of the most valuable publications of the year: but why Col. Pinkney should have chosen to present it from an English rather than from an American press, we have no hint to determine, our traveller chusing to commence his tour abruptly, without a word of introduction, preface, apology or address. The epoch of his travels brings down his report to the period before us; and the part of France, through which his travels were directed, is precisely that of which we have for many years heard least, and consequently of which we are anxious to gain information. The line runs along the banks of the Loire, the Isere, and the Garonne, through the greater part of their course. Colonel Pinkney left Baltimore, in America, for Liverpool in April 1807: from Liverpool he travelled to London, which he soon left, and proceeded to Calais in his way to Paris. At this last city he remained a short time; and then quitted it for the excursion before us, in company with Mr. Younge, confidential secretary to the American Ambassador, Mr. Armstrong, Mrs. Younge, who was of French birth, and her niece Mademoiselle St. Sillery, who, says the gallant Colonel, “with the single exception of her aunt, was the handsomest woman I had yet seen in France.” It may give some interest to our readers to learn that this *handsomest woman* was niece to M. Lally Tolendal, so well known by his tragedy of Stafford, his very eloquent and successful pleading for the reversal of a great part of his father’s sentence; and lastly, for his bold and patriotic defence of the unfortunate Louis XVI. From an American, and especially an American of the present day, we have no reason to

fear any undue prejudice against France or in favour of England. Yet the picture, even of this best and richest section of the French empire, is deplorable; and hostile as the land is to us, we weep over the gloom and dejection which it exhibits; its lost amenity and *gaieté de cœur*. Politics are, it appears, altogether abandoned in conversation: the inhabitants cannot dwell upon them with pleasure, and they seem afraid to dwell upon them at all. Land is enormously cheap, as indeed is every *home produce*; at Angers Mr. Pinkney found "the prices of beef and mutton to be about 2d. per pound, a fowl 5d. turkies, when in season, from 18d. to 2s. bread $1\frac{1}{2}$ per pound, and vegetables, greens, &c. cheap to a degree: a good house about six louis per year: and a mansion fit for a prince (for there are some of them, but *without inhabitants*) from forty to fifty louis, including from 30 to 40 acres of land without the walls." In Clermont the same average value was pretty generally exhibited. "I passed several chateaux in ruins," observes our intelligent traveller, "and several farms and houses on which were affixed notices that they were to be let or sold. On enquiring the rent and purchase of one of them, I found it so cheap, that, *could I have reconciled myself to French manners, and promised myself any suitable assistance from French labourers*, I should have seriously thought of making a purchase. An estate of eleven hundred acres, seven hundred of which were in culture, the remainder wood and heath, was offered for sale for 8000 louis. The mansion-house indeed was in ruin beyond the possibility of repair; but the land, *under proper cultivation*, would have paid twenty-five

per cent on the purchase money." Our author proceeds, however, to state that, instead of being *under proper cultivation*, the whole system of tillage throughout France is at least a century behind that of England or of America: and that if it were possible for an English or American farmer to introduce the agriculture of their respective countries into a French estate thus purchased, the very accumulation of produce hereby obtained would be the means of occasioning the farmer's ruin—there are no neighbouring markets to which he could carry his abundant harvests—the greater part would decay and rot at home, and he would be destroyed by his own opulence.

In the midst of all this extraordinary cheapness of *domestic productions*, trade, it seems, is rapidly declining, and imports as exorbitant in price as home articles are reduced. "Provisions," observes Mr. P. "are incomparably cheap at Valens and in its vicinity. Trade however seemed very slack: the shops were on the smallest possible scale, and every thing which was not produced in the neighbourhood was enormously dear. Groceries in France are nearly twice the price which they bear in England." At Abbeville—in the cloth-manufactory, the earnings of the working manufacturers are about 36 sols per diem (1s. 6d): in the carpet-manufactories somewhat more. The cloths, as far as I, am a judge, seemed to me even to excel those of England: but the carpets are much inferior. *From some unaccountable reason, however, the cloths were much dearer than English broad-cloth of the same quality.*" The merchant-vessels of England, our traveller calculates at two hundred times the number of those belong-

ing to France. In the midst of all these evils, however, the French continue Frenchmen still. They pipe, they dance, they carouse themselves, they pass away life jovially. They are as licentious and as loquacious as ever: the men are gay, and not jealous; the women loose, and not reserved: decencies and decorum they have none, yet religion is fashionable. Col. Pinkney had the honour of being introduced by the American ambassador to the French court, and gives a very instructing account of Bonaparte's levee. The result of this intelligent writer's observations is certainly in favour of whatever is English: we are obliged to him for many valuable and entertaining facts and observations; and our readers will not, we trust, lament that we have remained so long in his company.

“Travels through Denmark, and Part of Sweden, during the Winter and Spring of the present year 1809: containing authentic Particulars of the domestic Condition of those Countries, the Opinions of the Inhabitants, and the State of Agriculture: by James Macdonald.” 2 vols. 12mo. Mr. Macdonald travelled too rapidly for all the purposes of profound information, and at the same time, unfortunately for him, under circumstances in which it must have been with difficulty that he obtained any information whatever. Being shipwrecked on the extreme point of Jutland, he surrendered as a prisoner to the Danes, and, with a considerable number of his fellow sufferers, was conducted by an escort through Aalborg, Odensee, Korkilde, and Copenhagen to Elsinour. It was during this expedition that he contrived to collect the facts, and keep open the journal of which the pre-

sent volumes consist. But to diminish in some degree the reader's natural wonder that he should be able, while in bondage, to accomplish this object to the extent to which he affects to have done it, he very courteously informs us, that he had previously paid a visit to the same country, and was hence better prepared for such an undertaking. According to Mr. Macdonald's statement, the Danes do not appear to be actuated by that spirit of resentment against the English which recent events might have been supposed to have enkindled: the country, however, appears to have suffered severely from the war; “and the common necessities of life are more than double their former price:” the government expenditure greatly exceeds the revenue; public credit is annihilated, and all classes are materially injured by the depreciation in “the real value of money.” Sweden occupies but a small part of the work, not more than about a hundred and thirty pages of the latter volume being devoted to it. Mr. Macdonald's range, indeed, was but upon a very confined scale, comprehending only that portion of the coast which lies between Helsinburg and Gottenburg. His remarks contain nothing particularly worthy of comment.

Spain and Portugal have occupied a large proportion of the public attention in a geographical as well as in a political light. The publications that relate to them, are too numerous for a minute examination of each. The following are the principal: “A view of Spain: comprising a descriptive itinerary of each province, and a general statistical account of the country. Translated from the French

French of *Alexander de Laborde*." 5 vols. 8vo. A mere compilation from Capmeny, Fischer, and Homboldt, though brought forward as an original work, and laying claim to the merit of originality. It repeats many idle and unfounded statements, exhibits many anachronisms, (unless, indeed, these be chargeable to the translator, instead of to the French compiler,) and is overloaded with prolixities; but, in the course of the work, we certainly meet with some valuable information, and many facts not hitherto communicated, the result of personal observation and knowledge. The "*Tableau de l'Espagne Moderne*" of M. Bourgoing has left M. Laborde's work unnecessary, and, if we mistake not, will render its sale difficult. There is a good deal of fulsome cant upon the miseries introduced into Spain by the present iniquitous war; and the writer, while he has not courage enough to defend its cause, pretends to weep over its afflictions.

2. "Concerning the Relations of Great Britain, Spain, and Portugal, to each other and the Common Enemy at this Crisis: and specifically as affected by the Convention of Cintra: the whole brought to the Test of those Principles by which alone the Independence and Freedom of Nations can be preserved or recovered: by William Wordsworth." 8vo. This is rather the work of a poet than a politician. Mr. Wordsworth thinks strongly and originally, and clothes his thoughts in all the pomp and splendour of hope and metaphor: but all is wild and visionary, there is no resting point, nothing fundamental or tangible. It is a dazzling glare of philanthropic speculation, without the means, and consequently without the chance of being

carried into effect. There is also a little of that incongruity in different parts of the volume, which it is so difficult for a man of imagination to avoid; thus, in one place, he seems to think that Spain can only be liberated by the exertions of Great Britain; and, under the influence of this impression, he advises that "we should put forth to the utmost our strength as a military power—strain it to the very last point, and propose (no erect mind will start at the proposition), to pour into the peninsula a force of two hundred thousand men or more." In another place, the enthusiast spreads a still bolder wing, indulges in a nobler flight, and, in the midst of his triumphant career, contemplates Spain as perfectly competent by her own powers to accomplish her own godlike object, and as worthily, and with sufficient reason, spurning equally the assistance of men and of *angels*. "Spain," says he, "had risen not merely to be delivered and saved: deliverance and safety were but intermediate objects: regeneration and liberty were the end; and the means by which this end was to be attained had their own value; were determined and precious; and could no more admit of being departed from, than the end of being forgotten. She had risen, not merely to be free; but in the act and process of acquiring that freedom, to recompense herself, as it were in a moment, for all which she had suffered through ages: to levy upon the false fame of a cruel tyrant large contributions of true glory: to lift herself, by the conflict, as high in honour as the disgrace was deep, to which her own weakness and vices, and the violence and perfidy of her enemies had subjected

jected her. If *an angel from heaven* had come with power to take the enemy from their grasp, (I do not fear to say this in spite of the dominion which is now re-extended over so large a portion of their land,) *they would have been sad: they would have looked round them, their souls would have turned inwards; and they would have stood like men defrauded and betrayed.*" Prophet and poet were synonymous in former times: what a pity it is that there should be so wide a discrepancy between them in the present day, and especially in the present instance. 3. "Political, Commercial, and Statistical Sketches of the Spanish Empire in both Indies: Reflections on the Policy proper for Great Britain at the present Crisis, and a View of the political Question between Spain and the United States respecting Louisiana and the Floridas, with the Claims of Great Britain, as founded on treaty, to the commercial Navigation of the River Mississippi." 8vo. So far as this author writes from personal observation, and practical experience, which, to give him his due, appears to be extensive upon the different subjects here discussed, so far he is entitled to attention. His style, for a person who does not appear to have been much concerned with the press, is respectable; but when he connects theory with practice, and attempts to draw general and comprehensive conclusions from his individual knowledge, he commits woeful errors, and is far less entitled to respect.

The above relate to the peninsula generally: the following limit their survey to the military events of the day, and the result which is likely to be produced by them. 4. "A Narrative of the Campaign of

the British Army in Spain, commanded by his Excellency Lieutenant-General Sir John Moore, K. B. &c. authenticated by official Papers, and original Letters: by James Moore Esq." 4to. This is one of the most important political and military communications of the year: it has let us more into the genius and feelings of the Spaniards as a nation, than any other work that has been published: and if it diminish more than any other work our hope of ultimate success, the gloomy picture which it draws has been proved to be correct by almost every subsequent incident, and the fatal result at which it hints, appears to be too rapidly approaching to be doubted of any longer. It is a tribute due to one of the first heroes of the day, and it is delicately and elegantly paid by the hand of an accomplished man, and an affectionate brother. 5. "A few Remarks explanatory of the Motives which guided the Operations of the British Army during the late short Campaign in Spain: by Brigadier-general Henry Clinton, &c." 8vo. It has been objected to the friends of Sir John Moore, by those who have not attended sufficiently to the subject, first, that he ought not in the actual state of Spain at the time, to have pushed forward from Salamanca to Sahagun; and, secondly, that in his retreat he ought to have taken the road to Vigo, instead of to Corunna. To repel these unfounded charges is the object of the pamphlet before us; and we think Sir Henry has vindicated his lamented friend in a manner the most complete and satisfactory. 6. "Observations on the Movements of the British Army in Spain: in reply to Brigadier-general H. Clinton's Statement, by

a British officer," 8vo. There are some facts, or pretended facts, here presented, which are certainly at variance with facts asserted in the two preceding works: but the author has concealed his name, and we cannot rely on their correctness: they nevertheless require some notice from the friends of Sir John Moore. 7. "Letters from Portugal and Spain, comprising an Account of the Operations of the Armies under their Excellencies Sir Arthur Wellesley and Sir John Moore, from the Landing of the Troops in Mondego Bay to the Battle at Corunna, &c.: by Adam Neale, M.D. F.L.S. &c." 4to. We cannot pay much compliment to this production. The letters, we are told, were not originally intended for publication, and that to fit them for the press much has been omitted, and much altered. Now the greater part, if not the whole of their value, would, in our opinion, have depended upon their being given as they were originally written: for we question whether in that state they were not much simpler, much shorter, and much more natural. In their present shape they are so stuffed with epithets, and bespangled with tropes and figures, as clearly to prove that they have passed through a long process of manufacturing for the press. The writer is always aiming at being peculiarly picturesque, or peculiarly pathetic; feelings that betray him to have composed the greater proportion in his closet, instead of on the field of battle, as he pretends to have done. Some of the writer's feelings also betray him into the common blunders of his countrymen: one instance must suffice. "On entering the cottage (says he, in describing the battle of Vimiera) to

1809.

survey the *sadly interesting* group within, I recognized, *amid the gloom* of an inner apartment, the *features* of an officer with whom I was formerly well acquainted. On approaching he recollected me, and pointed to the spot where the *fatal* lead had entered. I was happy to perceive that the wound was *not immediately dangerous*, and instantly tendered him my services. The ball had been extracted by a surgeon." The account proceeds in the same namby-pamby style, to a length we cannot copy: but it soon acquaints us more fully that this *fatal* ball did not prove *fatal*; and that the important services which this sentimental physician to his majesty's forces tendered to the wounded officer, *after* the ball had been extracted, and the wound dressed, consisted in "*having advised a bleeding*," (why or wherefore we are not told;) "when," adds Dr. Neale, "I quitted him to offer my services to any of those around who might require them."

"A permanent and effective Remedy suggested for the Evils under which the British West Indies now labour: in a Letter from a West India Merchant to a West India Planter." 8vo. This pamphlet boldly recommends a reduction of the growth of sugar as the only means of obtaining an adequate price: To this there is one serious objection, and which must effectually preclude it from answering: and that is, the growing extension of West India colonies by the capture and conquest of other islands. The pamphlet is well written, and well worthy of attention.

"The Orders in Council and the American Embargo, beneficial to the political and commercial Interests

Interests of Great Britain; by Lord Sheffield." The position advanced in the title-page does not appear to be established by the facts or reasoning in the tract itself: for the noble author admits that our commerce has fallen off considerably during the year in which the orders in council have operated, though he ascribes the defalcation (erroneously as it appears to us) to other sources. It is, however, one of the best pamphlets on the subject.

The peculiar state of Ireland has called forth many tracts, but none of essential consequence. We will just notice, that Sir Jonah Barrington, judge of the high court of admiralty, has published in a quarto fascicle the first part of his "Historic Anecdotes and Secret Me-

moirs of the Legislative Union between Great Britain and Ireland." It will be time for us to examine it more in detail when the work is completed.

A View of the Gold and Silver Coin of all Nations, &c. by Joseph Ede." This consists of copper-plate engravings, intended to guard the public against frauds, by a representation of genuine legends: but the engravings are in various instances incorrect.

Our law list consists chiefly of Mr. Comyns's Treatise on Contracts and Agreements not under Seal: Mr. Campbell on Nisi Prius: Mr. Turner on the Practice of the Court of Exchequer: Mr. Bradby on the Law of Distress: Mr. Sugden on Powers: Mr. Minchin on Debt and Credit.

CHAPTER IV.

LITERATURE AND POLITE ARTS.

Containing the Transactions of Literary Societies, Biography, Etymologies, Grammar, Philology, Classics, Poetry, Drama, Novels, Tales, and Romances.

THE "Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society of London" have still sufficient interest and importance to induce us to open the present chapter with a brief notice of the articles contained in the volume published for the year before us. The first part consists of nine communications, as follows: 1. "The Croonian Lecture. On the Functions of the Heart and Arteries: by Thomas Young, M. D. For. Sec. R. S." The observations here communicated are founded upon the idea, that "the mechanical motions which take place in an animal body, are regulated by the same general laws as the motions of inanimate bodies." The questions examined upon this assumption, are, first, "what would be the nature of the circulation of the blood, if the whole of the veins and arteries were invariable in their dimensions, like tubes of glass or of bone? In the second place, in what manner would the pulse be transmitted from the heart through the arteries, if they were merely elastic tubes? and, in the third place, what actions can we with propriety attribute to the muscular coats of the arteries themselves?" The paper concludes with some observations on the disturbance of these motions, which may be supposed to occur in different kinds of inflammations and of fevers.

We cannot pursue this elaborate inquiry, which we have read with much pleasure and improvement. We cannot avoid noticing, however, that in allowing *forty pounds*, as the average weight of the blood in an adult, the writer appears to have exceeded the due proportion by at least twelve pounds, though we are aware that some physiologists have absurdly doubled, and even more than doubled, the ratio he has here assigned. He calculates that the muscular coats of the arteries are of high, if not of principal utility, in accommodating the diameter of the blood-vessels to their contents, which he supposes to be perpetually varying: and modestly observes, towards the close of his subject, that "with respect to the tendency of inflammation in general to extend itself to the neighbouring parts, it is scarcely possible to form any reasonable conjecture that can lead to its explanation: that this circumstance appears to be placed beyond the reach of any *mechanical* theory, and to belong rather to some mutual communication of the functions of the nervous system, since it is not inflammation only that is thus propagated, but a variety of other local affections of a specific nature, which are usually complicated with inflammation, although they may perhaps, in some cases be independent of it." Till this

is more intelligibly explained, we are afraid we must adhere to Mr. John Hunter's theory of continuous and contiguous sympathy. 2. "Account of some Experiments performed with a View to ascertain the most advantageous method of constructing a Voltaic Apparatus, for the Purposes of Chemical Research: by John Geo. Children, Esq. F. R. S." The apparatus here noticed is of two kinds: first, a battery with plates of copper and zinc, connected together by leaden straps, soldered on the top of each pair of plates, which are twenty in number, each plate being four feet high by two feet wide; the sum of all the surfaces being 92160 square inches, exclusive of the single plate at each end of the battery. The trough is made of wood, with wooden partitions, well covered with cement to render them perfectly tight, so that no water can flow from one cell to another. The battery was charged with a mixture of three parts, fuming nitrous, and one part sulphuric acid, diluted with thirty parts of water, and the quantity used was an hundred and twenty gallons. The second battery consisted of two hundred pairs of plates, each about two inches square, placed in half pint pots of common queen's ware, and made active by some of the liquor used in exciting the large battery, to which was added a fresh portion of sulphuric acid, equal to about a quarter of a pint to a gallon. The result of these new, and in many respects more commodious modes of condensing the electric or voltaic power, confirms the axiom of Mr. Davy, that "the *intensity* increases with the *number*, and the *quantity* with the *extent* of the series."

3. "The Bakerian Lecture. An Account of some new Analytical Researches on the Nature of certain Bodies, particularly the Alkalies, Phosphorus, Sulphur, Carbonaceous Matter, and the Acids hitherto undecomposed; with some general Observations on Chemical Theory: by Humphry Davy, Esq. Sec. R.S. &c." This very elaborate and curious article continues the series of Mr. Davy's very important experiments on the most intractable substances in modern chemistry. We have already noticed the result of his experiments on potash and soda; and the field being hereby opened, he has expatiated in it with a fearless, and almost unlimited step. Our readers will readily allow us to accompany him to an extent which we cannot admit to writers or experiments in general. We shall give the chief point of the article from the notes minuted down by us on a patient and attentive perusal of it. MM. Gay Lussac and Thenard have discovered since Mr. Davy's first publication upon the nature of potash and soda, that potassium may be obtained much more readily and in larger quantities, by the simple action of ignited iron upon potash, which separates the oxygen as effectually as the voltaic circuit. Hence these chemists have conceived and asserted, that potassium is a compound of potash and hydrogen, instead of being a simple substance (simplified by the abstraction of oxygen); and that the hydrogen is derived from the metal employed. This assertion, if true, would altogether subvert Mr. Davy's theory; and tend towards introducing the phlogistic theory once more. Mr. Davy, by a very accurate and extensive series of experiments here referred to, has very

very satisfactorily proved, however, that potassium neither contains any hydrogen, nor any affinity for it. With respect to the other articles examined, the following is a brief sketch of the general results:

Sulphur. The voltaic circuit appears sufficiently to prove this to be no longer a simple substance, but to consist of a certain portion of hydrogen and oxygen, in connexion with a resinous, oily, and carbonaceous matter; this last constituting the acidifiable basis.

Phosphorus. This also contains a small quantity of hydrogen and oxygen. The basis, however, has not been obtained free.

Boracic Acid. From this a combustible matter was obtained, which bears the same relation to this acid as sulphur and phosphorus do to the sulphuric and phosphoric acids. But is it, inquires Mr. Davy, an elementary inflammable body, the pure basis of the acid? or is it not like sulphur and phosphorus compounded?

Fluoric Acid. The decomposition of this by sulphur and potassium, seems analogous to that of the acids of sulphur and phosphorus. In none of them are the pure bases, or even the bases in their common form resolved, but new compounds result.

Muriatic Acid. The experiments upon this are very unsatisfactory, though highly curious.

Plumbago. Carbonaceous matter, merely in combination with iron, and in a form approaching to that of a metal in its nature, being conducting in a high degree, opaque and lustrous.

Charcoal. A compound substance also; containing a minuter quantity of hydrogen in combination; alkalies and earths are produced during its combustion, not fully

combined with oxygen. In the main it consists of pure carbon and hydrogen.

Diamond. This also seems to possess oxygen; but the quantity must be exceedingly minute, though probably sufficient to render the compound non-conducting. Like charcoal, it appears to consist in the main of pure carbon, and perhaps consists of this altogether: it does not, like charcoal, produce water under any degree of heat, and hence has no hydrogen.

Azot and Hydrogen in combination. There is some doubt whether this be an elementary principle. In one or two experiments, p. 55, on ammonia, in which it was analyzed by volcanic electricity, Mr. Davy appears to have decomposed it; and in one experiment, p. 52, to have generated it. One of its elements he suspects to be oxygen; but what is the other? As ammonia (the result of azot and hydrogen) appears to be metallic, and to amalgamate with mercury, has azote a metallic base, and is the gass, &c. which, in the formation of this amalgam appears to possess the properties of hydrogen, a new species of inflammable aerial substance? We appear, therefore, to be uncertain in some degree, as to the existence, as elements, both of azot and hydrogen. The general result of these experiments is, that hydrogen does not appear (as Mr. Davy at one time expected it would do) to be a common principle in all inflammable bodies: and that the theory of Lavoisier has still an advantage over that of Phlogiston. In proportion as a progress is made towards a knowledge of pure combustible bases, is the number of metallic substances increased: and could sulphur and phosphorus be perfectly deprived of oxygen, it is probable

probable they would belong to this class. And hence we appear to be reduced to *oxygen* and the *metallic base* of bodies, as the sole elementary principles of all things. We confess this is not by any means so conclusive a paper as Mr. Davy's last: we have been considerably dissatisfied with it, as throwing us once more afloat without helm or compass. But perhaps we expected too much.

IV. "An Account of a Method of dividing Astronomical and other Instruments, by ocular Inspection; in which the usual Tools for graduating are not employed, &c. by Mr. Edward Troughton; communicated by the Astronomer Royal." This paper is valuable, but cannot be abridged, and would not be intelligible without the plates and tables.

V. "Letter on a Canal in the Medulla Spinalis of some Quadrupeds. In a Letter from Mr. William Sewell, to Everard Home, Esq. F. R. S." This canal is observed to exist through the whole length of the Medulla Spinalis of the horse, bullock, sheep, hog, and dog, and to run through the whole length of the organ. Its existence is supposed to be now pointed out for the first time: but its use is not hinted at.

VI. "A Numerical Table of elective Attractions; with Remarks on the Sequences of Double Decompositions; by Thomas Young, M. D. For. Sec. F. R. S. This paper cannot be explained without the tables.

VII. "Account of the Dissection of a Human Fœtus, in which the Circulation of the Blood was carried on without a Heart: by Mr. B. C. Brodie, communicated by Everard Home, Esq. F. R. S." A very curious case of monstrosity, in which

a vigilant dissection and injection appear to have proved that there was not only no heart or common connecting organ between the arterial and venous systems, but no communication between these systems whatever, except by anatomizing vessels in the fœtus and placenta. "The blood must have been propelled from the placenta to the child, through the artery of the chord, and must have been returned to the placenta by means of the vein, so that the placenta must have been at once the source and termination of the circulation, and the blood must have been propelled by the action of the vessels only."

VIII. "On the Origin and Formation of Roots; in a Letter from T. A. Knight, Esq. F. R. S. to the Right Hon. Sir Joseph Banks, K. B. &c." The object of this paper is to controvert the common opinion, that the seed-radicle is analogous to the root of the plant, and in reality gives birth to it during germination; and to propose another opinion in its stead; but as the writer refers to other observations upon the same subject, to be communicated in a subsequent paper, we shall defer our remarks upon his theory till the whole is before us.

IX. "On the Nature of the Inter-vertebral Substance in *Fish* (Fishes) and Quadrupeds: by Everard Home, Esq. F. R. S." This substance is fluid during life, and becomes a jelly upon death. Mr. Home supposes its use in fishes is to produce the vibratory latent motion which is peculiar to the back-bones of fishes while swimming, and which enables them to continue that motion for a great length of time, with a small degree of muscular action. The fishes chiefly examined

examined were the shark and sturgeon. The quadrupeds examined were the bullock, sheep, deer, monkey, and ram; in all these appear to be some kind of canal, filled with a fluid, but in the two first of these genera, the canal is by far most distinct, as has been already remarked on the preceding Article V.

We have received Part II. of the Philosophical Transactions, consisting of eighteen articles. But having already occupied so much space in considering the first part, we are compelled, though reluctantly, to postpone an examination of this portion of the volume for the year till our next retrospect.

“Transactions of the Royal Society of Edinburgh, Vol. VI. Part II.” This consists of six papers, as follows: I. Of the Solids of greatest attraction; or those which, among all the solids that have certain Properties, attract with the greatest Force in a given Direction; by John Playfair, F. R. S. Lond. and Edin. &c.” This is purely a mathematical paper, and incapable of abridgment. The investigations were suggested by the well-known phænomenon of the attraction of mountains: and the direct object of Mr. Playfair, in the present contribution, is to inquire what figure a given mass of matter ought to have, in order that it might attract a particle in a given direction, with the greatest force possible. This kind of problem is usually resolved by the calculus of variations: a much simpler mode of solution, however, is here pointed out; and the method is successfully applied to several hundred problems.

II. “Account of a very extraordinary Effect of Refraction observed at Ramsgate, by the Rev. S. Vince, A. M. F. R. S. &c. communicated

by Patrick Wilson, Esq.” The phænomenon here noticed was an apparent transfer of Dover Castle, as observed with a good telescope, to the side of the hill opposite to that at which it ought to have appeared, or the side nearest Ramsgate, instead of that most remote. Mr. Vince explains this *fallacia* by a diagram, illustrating that it may be produced by a quick variation in the density of the intervening air.

III. “Some Account of the large snake *Alea-azugan* (*Boa Constrictor* of Linnéus) found in the province of Tipperah. Communicated by Mr. James Russel.” This account is extracted from the memorandum-book of John Corse Scott, Esq. There is nothing in this account rendering it worthy of insertion in the present collection. Every book on amphibiology contains similar statements, and most of them of a more extraordinary kind.

IV. “Chemical Analysis of a Black Sand, from the River Dee, in Aberdeenshire, and of a Copper Ore from Airthrey, in Stirlingshire: by Thomas Thomson, M. D. &c.” The specimen of sand here adverted to, consisted of two distinct substances, *Iron-sand*, and what Dr. Thomson calls *Iserine*; the first is powerfully attracted by the magnet, the other unattracted: both consisted chiefly of iron and titanium; in the former the iron, in a state of what this chemist calls protoxyd, was the chief ingredient: in the latter, the titanium was just equal to the iron. The copper ore consisted also chiefly of iron, the next ingredient being copper; and, with these, small proportions of arsenic, sulphur, and water.

V. “New Series for the Quadrature of Conic Sections, and the computation of Logarithms: by

by Wm. Wallace, Professor," &c. This cannot be abridged: the author's object is to deduce a series for the rectification of circular arcs, for the quadrature of conic sections, and for the computation of logarithms, from simple and elementary principles, without employing the fluxional or other equivalent calculus.

VI. "Remarks on a Mineral from Greenland, supposed to be crystalized Gadolinite: by Thomas Allen, Esq. F. R. S. Ed." We are not quite certain that the specimen here described is a gadolinite; it does not exactly answer in its specific gravity or chemical characters; although, in the inferior properties of lustre, fracture, and figure, it has a near resemblance.

"Asiatic Researches; or Transactions of the Society instituted in Bengal, for inquiring into the History and Antiquities, the Arts, Sciences, and Literature of Asia, Vol. IX." This, like the preceding volume, is filled with interesting matter: we lament that we can only take a rapid glance at the more important articles. No. 1, "An Account of Experiments made in the Mysore Country in the year 1804, to investigate the Effects of Terrestrial Refraction: by Lieut. John Warren." This is designed to establish the position of the invariable coincidence of the increase of refraction with that of moisture: and that in tropical climates, the refractive power of the air is not affected by its density. Nos. 2 and 9, "Description of a very sensible Hygrometer, and of an improved Hygrometer: by Lieut. Raikes." The bearded grass of the *Andropogon contortum* is the hygrometer here alluded to: and it appears to be admirably adapted to hygroscopic purposes. No. 3, "An Es-

say on the Sacred Isles in the West, with other Essays connected with that Work: by Capt. Wilford." These researches are a continuation of several very bold and recondite ones already noticed by us, as constituting a part of the preceding volume. The position which this ingenious writer has undertaken to establish, is, that the Hindu religion had its origin in the British Isles, which constitute, in his opinion, the Sweta Dwipa, or White Island of the Indian mythologists. This hypothesis is founded upon our author's explanation of the geographical knowledge of the followers of Brama, whom he supposes to have been perfectly acquainted with the whole of the west and north of Europe, even to the *ultima Thule*: with the British Isles, with Germany, with the Adriatic and Baltic Seas, and with Iceland. The proofs of these positions have yet to appear; and will probably be at least attempted in a subsequent paper. At present, whilst we admire Capt. Wilford's Oriental learning, we cannot accede to a theory which, till further supported, appears as visionary as that which ascribes the foundation of the religion of South America, in like manner, to our own country. We are obliged to this excellent Orientalist, however, for a very large portion of entertainment, and highly admire his penetration, spirit, and indefatigable industry. The Essays connected with this, and subservient to its purposes, are; α "Anugangam; or the Gangetic Provinces, and more particularly of Magadha." β "of the Kings of Magadha, their Chronology." γ "Vri-ramadilya and Salivahana, their respective eras: with an account of the Balarayas or Balhar emperors." δ "An

6. "An Account of the Jains." No. 6. "On the Indian and Arabian Division of the Zodiac: by H. T. Colebrooke, Esq. The chief object of this paper is to determine whether the Indian and Arabian divisions of the zodiac had a common origin; and the result of the inquiry is, that the resemblance is so considerable as scarcely to have been produced by chance, and that the Arabians probably introduced their zodiac from the Hindus. No. 7. "On Olibanum and Frankincense: by H. T. Colebrooke, Esq." The Olibanum of modern markets is generally admitted to have been the frankincense of the ancients: the tree from which this is obtained has not been satisfactorily settled; but has usually been supposed a mimosa or acacia. Mr. Colebrooke here proves it to be a tree called by the natives of India *Śālāi*, but we have yet to know how this ought to range in the Linnéan classification, for the systematic characters are not given. 8. "Remarks on the Species of Pepper which are found in Prince of Wales's Island: by William Hunter, Esq. M. D." Black pepper is in this island the principal article of produce: the piper betle, or beetle leaf, is also cultivated; and Dr. Hunter agrees with Saumaise in believing that the ancient Greek writers meant this leaf by *Malabathrum*, rather than the leaves of *Laurus Cassia*, or *Tez Pat*. 9. "On ancient Monuments, containing Sanscrit Inscriptions: by H. T. Colebrooke, Esq." The inscriptions are six in number, chiefly on copper or brass, two on stone: they are very curious, and appear to be of the thirteenth or fourteenth century of the christian æra. 14. "On the Grāmas, or

Musical Scale of the Hindus. By J. D. Paterson, Esq." This is an ingenious and recondite paper, but cannot be abridged.

"Transactions of the Entomological Society of London, vol. I." 8vo. Whoever is intimately acquainted with natural history, cannot but have remarked that the class insecta comprises almost, if not altogether, as many distinct genera and species, even of those that are actually classified, as all the other classes of zoology put together. Yet it is not perhaps more than a hundredth part of the whole that have hitherto been described even of those indigenous to European countries. There seems great reason therefore for instituting a society of the kind announced in the present volume, and which may be regarded as an offset from the Linnéan Society, for the purpose of pursuing this interesting branch of natural history to a greater extent, and in minuter detail. As such we wish it success. We have only at present space to notice, that the members appear very active and zealous, and well-instructed in entomological pursuits: and that the work is prefaced by an interesting memoir from the pen of the president, A. H. Haworth, Esq. F. L. S. intitled "A Review of the Rise and Progress of Entomology in Great Britain, chronologically digested."

"Transactions of the Linnéan Society of London, vol. IX." 4to. The present volume may rival any of its predecessors in variety and general merit. It consists of twenty-five articles. We can only copy their different subjects. 1st. The genus *Apion* of Herbert's Nature's System considered, its characters laid down, and many of the

the species described: by the Rev. William Kirby, F. L. S." Mr. Kirby considers the *Apion* as an intermediate genus between *curculio* and *atelabus*. 2nd. "Description of several Marine Animals found on the South Coast of Devonshire: by George Montague, Esq. F. L. S." These consist of three cancers, a phalangium, three onisci, a doris, an amphitrite, a terebella, a nereis, and a holothuria; the last a very beautiful worm. 3d. "Account of the Indian Badger, the *Ursus Indicus* of Shaw's Zoology: by Lieutenant-Colonel Thomas Hardwicke, F. L. S." 4th. "A Botanical Sketch of the Genus *Conchium*: by J. E. Smith, M. D. F. L. S." The *conchium* is the genus formerly denominated *Pseudo-Banksia*: the paper before us gives twelve species taken from living specimens. 5th. "An Inquiry into the Genus of the Tree called by Pona, *abelicea cretica*: by J. E. Smith, M. D. &c. Dr. Smith suspects this to be an *ulmus*, but still leaves the point questionable. 6th. "Inquiry into the real *Daucus Gingidium*;" by the same. This paper is short in itself, and incapable of abridgment. 7th. "Descriptions of eight British Lichens: by Dawson Turner, Esq. F. R. S. &c." These are accompanied by excellent figures, and arranged according to the system of Acharius. 8th. "Illustration of the Species of *Lycium* which grow wild at the Cape of Good Hope: by Sir Charles Peter Thunberg, &c." The number of species described are seven, four of which are new, and represented by accompanying plates. 9th. "Some Observations on an Insect that destroys the Wheat, supposed to be the Wire worm: by Thomas Walford, Esq. F. A. S. with an

additional note by Thomas Marsham, Esq. Treas. L. S." This worm is here supposed to be an elater: we rather suspect it to be the worm of a chermes. 10th. "Account of a larger and lesser Species of Horse-shoe Bats, proving them to be distinct: together with a Description of *Vespertilio Barbastellus*, taken in the South of Devonshire: by George Montague, Esq. &c." 11th. "Description of two new Species of *Didelphis* from Van Diemen's Land. Communicated by the Right Honourable Sir Joseph Banks, &c." 12th. "Description of a new Species of *Dimorpha*: by Edward Rudge, Esq. F. R. S. &c." This paper is designed to correct Aublet's erroneous description of the *dimorpha grandiflora*, and to substitute a more accurate one, which it seems to have accomplished. 13th. "Some interesting Additions to the Natural History of *Falco Cyaneus*, and *Pygargus*: together with Remarks on some other British birds: by G. Montague, Esq. F. L. S." The ingenious author confirms his former suspicions that the first (the hen-harrier) and the second (ring-tail) are the male and female of the same species. 14th. "Account of some new Species of *Piper*, with a few cursory Observations on the Genus: by Mr. J. V. Thompson: communicated by the Right Hon. Lord Seaforth, F. R. S. &c." The new species here described are two in number, one a native of Trinidad, the other of St. Vincent's. 15th. "Inquiry into the Structure of Seeds, and especially into the true Nature of that Part called by Gaertner the *vitellus*: by J. E. Smith, M. D. &c." Dr. Smith attempts to prove that the *vitellus* is not the embryo albumen, but a
more

mere cotyledon, or respiratory organ. 16th. "Observations on Nauclea Gambir, the Plant producing the Drug called Gutta Gambeer, with Characters of two other Species: by W. Hunter, Secretary to the Asiatic Society." Gutta Gambeer, a native of the Malaccas, is generally supposed to be nothing more than a catechu, or species of mimosa; the present paper sufficiently proves it to be a distinct species. 17th. "Observations respecting several British Species of Hieracium: by J. E. Smith, M. D. &c." 18th. "Specific Characters of the Decandrous Papilionaceous Plants of New Holland: by J. E. Smith, M. D. &c." 19th. "On the Variegation of Plants: in a Letter to R. A. Salisbury, Esq. F. R. S. &c. by T. A. Knight, Esq. F. R. S. &c. &c."—These experiments go to prove that if the blossom of the Frontignac vine be impregnated with the farina of the variegated Aleppo, the offspring will also be variegated: but that if the farina of a black or purple grape be introduced into the blossom of a white one, the offspring is never found to be variegated. 20th. "Characters of Hookeria, a new Genus of Mosses: by J. E. Smith, M. D." Ten species of this new moss are here described. 21st. "Description of Notoclea, a new Genus of Coleopterous Insects from New Holland: by Thomas Marsham, Esq. Tr. L. S. These bear a general resemblance to chrysomela and coccinella: twenty species are described and figured. 22nd. "Some Remarks now referred to Sophora, with Characters of the Genus Edwardsia: by R. A. Salisbury, Esq. F. R. S. &c." From the miscellaneous genus Sophora, a few plants are here se-

lected and arranged into a distinct genus, as possessing sufficient distinctions for this purpose, and denominated Edwardsia (an awkward Latin term) in honour of Mr. Sydenham Edwards. 23d. "Characters of Platylodium, Bossiaea, and of a new Genus named Poiretia: by J. E. Smith, M. D. &c." These are all New Holland plants possessing a considerable resemblance to each other: they belong to the diadelphian decandrian class and order. 24th. "Musci Nepalenses: or Descriptions of several new Mosses from Nepal: by W. J. Hooker, Esq. F. L. S." These were gathered by Dr. F. Buchanan during his journey to Nepal. They are thirteen in number. 25th. "Extracts from the Minute Book of the Society." Many of these extracts are hardly worth inserting; one consists of the supposed effect of the imagination of a female cat on the foetus in the womb. The cat on kitting had five young: the tail of each was knotted or distorted: and the cat having had her tail trodden upon while pregnant, the latter fact is here supposed to have produced the former. There is just as much reason for supposing them to be isolated and unconnected incidents.

But we proceed to the department of biography; and shall first notice "The Life of Saint Neot, the oldest of all the Brothers to King Alfred: by the Reverend John Whitaker, B. D. &c." 8vo. This title is hardly correct, for it leaves us still doubtful whether Alfred or St. Neot were the elder: though it is the full intention of the writer to prove that the latter was, and that by many years. A relationship between the two has been admitted by the concurrent voice of

of ancient historians, but Dr. Whitaker is the first who has minutely attempted to prove the direct degree of affinity between them; and although he has not perhaps completely established his position, he has, at least, rendered it very highly probable. Leland, indeed, has an extract from a very ancient manuscript life of St. Neot, which asserts him to have been a son of Ethelwulph: which Ethelwulf was the father of Alfred. This son is supposed to have been Athelstan, a name exchanged for that of St. Neot, after having quitted temporal for spiritual concerns: and it appears admitted by the older historians that earl Athelstan resigned both his property and his person to the very monastery in which St. Neot, about the same time, is known to have officiated as a priest. In a painted window, which still remains in the church belonging to the parish in Cornwall, named after him, he is represented as a king, a tradition which was pretty generally accredited down so low as the time of the reformation. Dr. Whitaker hence supposes Athelstan and St. Neot to have been one and the same person, and that the former name was exchanged for the latter, on his entering into holy orders, a name which he derives, and in our opinion correctly, from the Greek *Νεότης*, "a little one," as expressive either of diminutive stature, or, as it is far more likely, of humility of mind. We cannot close this article without one brief reflection upon the brevity and uncertainty of human life. The biographer of St. Neot stands at this moment in need of a biographer for himself! He died while in the act of correcting one of the last sheets; and while in the full contemplation of completing a

variety of antiquarian works he had chalked out for himself; one or two of them of considerably greater extent than the present, which, though not so long as several he has produced, is one of the most interesting and valuable.

"Memoirs of the Life and Writings of Sir Philip Sidney: by Thomas Zouch, D. D. F. L. S. Prebendary of Durham." 4to. This is a well written biography of perhaps the most blameless hero that decorates the annals of our country: the prejudices of Mr. H. Walpole are here manfully corrected, and all the milder graces and more elegant accomplishments, which are well known to have blended in this extraordinary character, in conjunction with the sturdier and more active virtues, the *illud nescio quid præclarum ac singulare*, as Cicero expresses it, are here given us with a sort of laudable partiality. Dr. Zouch, however, is not blind to the faults of Sir Philip, and considers him as open to censure for the violence of his literary attacks on the assailants of his patron and relative Lord Leicester, and still more so for exposing his valuable life "with the rashness of a volunteer," as Mr. Walpole terms it; a foible of vanity and hardihood to which the noble youth of England were at that time remarkably prone.

"The Life of Thomas Chatterton: by John Davis, Author of Travels in America." 8vo. This is a short and not ill-written account of a youth whose name will never be forgotten so long as the language in which he wrote endures. Chatterton was the posthumous son of a charity-school master in Bristol: and at Bristol first, under his father's successor, and afterwards at the Colston blue-coat charity school, he received his education. At an early

early age, while at school, he showed a propensity to poetry; and while in an attorney's office (in which he was afterwards placed as an articled clerk) he composed those extraordinary effusions, which under the name of Rowley's poems, excited so warm an interest, and so sturdy a controversy in this metropolis. He was invited to London by the booksellers, chiefly by Beckford and Wilkes—but was never encouraged by them as he had expected; and upon the death of the former, he was thrown into a state of absolute penury. Nevertheless, whatever scanty pittance he could scrape together, he never failed to transmit to his mother and sister at Bristol, often subsisting on the scantiest diet himself for weeks together, and on one occasion going without any kind of food for two days. In a fit of melancholy, principally produced by actual want, but perhaps accumulated by an hereditary predisposition to mental derangement, (for it is well known that Mrs. Newton, his sister, was once confined, and that her daughter was subject to morbid melancholy,) he put an end to his existence by swallowing a large dose of laudanum, Aug. 24, 1770. The coroner was summoned; the jury brought in a verdict of insanity; and Chatterton was buried in the ground belonging to the work-house in Shoe-lane. The circumstance which led to the production of the Rowleyan poems cannot fail to interest every one, and were as follows: "In the church of St. Mary Redcliff, Bristol, which was founded or rebuilt by W. Canynge, an eminent merchant of Bristol, in the reign of Edward IV. (the 15th century) there is a kind of muniment room, over the north porch, in which were deposited six or seven chests, one

of which was called Mr. Canynge's coffer: this chest had been formerly secured by six keys entrusted to different persons, but in process of time the keys were lost; and when, about 1727, in consequence of a notion that the chest contained some title deeds, an order was made by the vestry for its examination, the locks were forced, the deeds found in it were taken away, but a number of other manuscripts were left exposed to casual depredation. Many were carried off; but the father of Chatterton was insatiable in his plunder. He removed baskets-full of the parchment manuscripts to his school, but he made no better use of them than to cover the boys' books. At the death of Chatterton's father, the widow, being under the necessity of removing, carried the remainder of the parchments to her new habitation, and as the occasion required, the worthy woman made thread-papers of them for herself and her daughter. When Chatterton was first articled to Mr. Lambert he used frequently to come home to his mother by way of a short visit. There, one day, his eye was caught by one of these parchments which had been converted into a thread-paper. That moment was the hinge of his future destiny: that circumstance determined his future projects. He had already dabbled in heraldry, and made collections of old English words from different glossaries. But his passion was not confirmed. He examined the characters of the parchments, and formed the design of converting the circumstance into a regular system of literary deception. He began to interrogate his mother respecting the parchments of which she had made thread papers: she related to him the history, and produced

duced what other parchments had escaped the general wreck. But they were very few: there was not enough to make half a dozen more thread-papers. Chatterton, however, affected rapture on obtaining them, and having examined their contents, declared he had found a treasure.' The passion which he had before felt for old English customs and manners became enthusiastic. He made every study subservient to the project he contemplated of counterfeiting ancient English. He obtained Speight's Chaucer, and, from its glossary, compiled one for his own use in two parts: the first contained old words with their modern English; the second the modern English with its old words. The second part was his grand instrument in preparing his ancient poetry. It enabled him to turn modern English into old, as an English and Latin dictionary enables the student to translate English into Latin. It was from Mr. Green, the bookseller of Bristol, that he obtained Speight's Chaucer. From other acquaintance (acquaintances) he procured Skinner, Kersey, and the small Saxon dictionary. Possessing a mind well-seasoned with English poetry, and liberally endowed with that power which constitutes a poet, that intellectual energy which collects, combines, amplifies and animates, these books enabled him to carry into execution his darling scheme of producing works that should astonish the learned; and such were his ingenuity and perseverance, that the historical collections of Fœsalanus, which Curzio pretended to have found when digging with his spade, incur contempt when compared to the poems Chatterton discovered to have lain so long in the iron chest of Redcliff church."

"Memoirs of William Paley, D. D. &c.: by G. W. Meadley." 8vo. As we have extracted pretty largely from this work in a preceding part of our volume, our readers will be able to form a judgment for themselves as to the general nature and merits of the performance, as well as of the kind of entertainment and instruction it lays open to them. They will perceive that Mr. Meadley is rather a man of activity and research than of elegance in composition; more correct in fixing dates and acquiring facts, than in the style in which he clothes his results. He appears to have made the most of the materials he possessed, and to have neglected no sources of information to which he could have access. He seems strongly attached to the whole routine of systems and sentiments which peculiarly characterized the very excellent scholar he has chosen to *biographize*, and is rather an elogist than an historian.

"Memoirs of the Life and Writings of Percival Stockdale, &c. written by himself." 2 vols. 8vo. Those who are fond of variety may peruse this work with high gratification to themselves. It exhibits the author as a student both in England and Scotland, as a military character, as a churchman, as a traveller abroad, as a poet, critic, and author: always amusing and intelligent, but always volatile, unsteady, and indiscreet: a perpetual prey to the passions of the moment, whatever it might chance to be, good or bad: "to compleat *any* scheme," observes Mr. Stockdale of himself, "to execute *any* project that had seized my mind, and at *any* hazard; how unwarrantable soever by prudence and common sense, was the occasion, and how strongly soever I was dissuaded from

it—was unfortunately a part of my constitution, and of my habits.” He has related the whole of the events, the most wild and immoral of his past life, with a zest which leaves us no room to doubt of his ingenuousness, but much reason to question whether at this hour he feels any “compunctious visitings” on their account. As vicar of Lesbury (and if we mistake not, rector of Longhowton) we had reason to expect that if the author had chosen to take a survey of the giddy vicissitudes, and unjustifiable steps that mark much of the scenery of the earlier part of his life, he would not have done it quite so much *con amore*; and would have occasionally sprinkled a few moral reproaches over himself upon the score of his errors.

We are also indebted to the indefatigable pen of Mr. Hayley for a biographical account of his friend Mr. Romney. It is written in his usual style of plenary verbiage, and rather characterized by warmth of friendship than chasteness or elegance of style: but as we have already given an extract or two from it in a preceding part of this volume, we shall rather refer our readers to the passages we have selected, than offer any more detailed account of the work in the present place. Mr. Romney’s professional character will be found to be admirably sketched by that short part of the work which has been contributed by Mr. Flaxman.

“Lectures on Painting delivered at the Royal Academy of Arts: with a Letter on the Proposal for a public Memorial of the Naval Glory of Great Britain. By *the late* John Opie.” We lament to see the epithet *late* prefixed to this writer’s name, as we are convinced every one must be who is acquainted

with his professional talents from actual study, or from a perusal of the work before us. These lectures evince an originality of thought, an extent of reading, and a consummation of taste, not often to be met with in lecturers of any kind; and especially in the lecturers of the Royal Academy. They contain less theoretical speculation, and less recondite science and literature than Mr. Barry’s: but they are written with much more point and spirit, and in a much more popular style. They are introduced by a memoir by Mrs. Opie, which is highly creditable to her feelings, and by no means discreditable to her pen. There are a few blemishes however in it, which prove clearly that it was either drawn up with too much haste, or that severe grief still clouded the mind of the fair memoirist at the time of writing: the following is one of the instances we allude to. “Milton, Shakspeare, Dryden, Pope, Gray, *Hudibras*, Burke, and Dr. Johnson, he might, to use a familiar expression, be said to know by heart.” Again, p. 19. “Had a troop of comedians visited his native place *before he conceived his decided predilection* for painting, he would have been an actor instead of a painter!” In the lectures there is a fund of wit and epigrammatic point, but they are often combined with a coarseness that surprizes us. Thus, p. 94, the British Artists have “become the first schools at present in Europe, on the mere *scraps, offals, and dog’s meat* of patronage, &c.” So, p. 122, “In their histories they (the Dutch artists) sacrificed without mercy all decorum, all propriety, all regard to costume, all beauty, truth, and grandeur of character. Gods, emperors, heroes, sages, and beauties, were all taken out

out of *the same pot*, and metamorphosed by one stroke of the pencil into Dutchmen."

It speaks highly in favour of the general taste for literary pursuits indulged by Englishmen, that we have received not less than three Sanscrit grammars in the course of the year before us: Mr. Colebrooke's, Dr. Carey's, and Dr. Wilkins's: of Mr. Colebrooke's only a part has yet been published; and it bids fair to be the fullest and most philosophical of the whole: it is grounded on a well-known and valuable grammar of the original, entitled *Sarāswald*. Dr. Carey has chosen *Vodapeva* as his guide, and for those who study Sanscrit through the medium of the Bengalee, it is possible that his may be deserving of a preference. *Vodapeva's* grammar has been long known and approved in Bengal under the name of *Mugdabadha*; but, from Dr. Carey's copy (for we have not seen the original), it is not exactly calculated for Europeans. It wants method and simplicity, with a rigorous attention to which, we think, it might be reduced to half its present bulk. In both these last respects it is impossible for us not to prefer Dr. Wilkins's grammar: the general rules are delivered in a clear and succinct manner; yet the exceptions, and the examples necessary to illustrate them, together with the rules to which the Indian grammarians have attempted (sometimes unsuccessfully) to subject these anomalies, have swelled even this last grammar to 656 pages. Still its size is considerably less alarming than that of Dr. Carey's; and both, indeed, in some measure, supply the want of a lexicon, by a copious list of Sanscrit roots. It is certainly less ornamental than the compositions of Sir William Jones,

Mr. Halhed, or Mr. Gladwin: but to have allowed of the flowery, yet attractive illustrations which have been indulged in by these philologists, would have rendered the work less compact, and far more expensive.

Whilst we are upon this subject, we will step forward a page or two to notice a quarto compilation just published, entitled, "*Ancient Indian Literature: illustrative of the Researches of the Asiatic Society.*" We cannot, however, speak much in favour of this production. At the price of twenty-five shillings for not more than 177 very loosely printed pages, it is unmercifully expensive: the selections are by no means the most important that might have been brought forward even from the original treasures we at present possess in Great Britain; and of these several, instead of being direct versions from *ancient Indian*, or *Sanscrit*, as they profess to be, are manifestly mere translations through a Persian, or more generally we believe an Arabic medium, and imbued with Persian or Arabic conceits.

"An Etymological Dictionary of the Scottish (Scotish) Language, &c.: by John Jamieson, D. D. &c." 2 vols. 4to. This is a truly national and valuable work: the Scottish language has been long sinking into an oblivion from which, on various accounts, we wish to see it rescued. It has been usual to regard the Scottish language, or that of the Lowlands, not as a distinct tongue, but as a mere dialect of the English. Dr. J. however, strenuously contends that the Scottish has as much claim "to the designation of a peculiar language as most of the other languages of Europe;" and that "from the view here given of it in the form of an etymological

mological dictionary, it will appear that it is not more nearly allied to the English than the Belgic is to the German, the Danish to the Swedish, or the Spanish to the Portuguese." We cannot altogether accede to this assertion; but we can conscientiously praise the indefatigable industry, and accurate judgment of the learned editor, for the manner, equally scientific and entertaining, with which he has accomplished his task. The volumes before us are truly entitled to the character of "illustrating the words in their different significations by examples from ancient and modern writers: shewing their affinity to those of other languages, and especially the northern; explaining many terms which, though now obsolete in England, were formerly common to both countries; and elucidating national rites, customs, and institutions, in their analogy to those of other nations." The prefixed dissertation on the origin of the Scottish language is well worth the attention of every liberal philologist.

"A descriptive Catalogue of the Oriental Library of the late Tippoo Sultan of Mysore: to which are prefixed Memoirs of Hyder Ali Khan, and his Son Tippoo Sultan: by Charles Stewart, Esq. M. A. S. &c." 4to. This catalogue possesses considerable interest, by exhibiting the sort of learning actually cultivated by the Mahometans of India at this day, and the principal works now circulating through that country: "the library," says Major Stewart, "consisted of nearly two thousand volumes of Arabic, Persic, or Hindustani manuscripts, in all the various branches of Mahometan learning. Very few of these books had been purchased, either by Tippoo, or

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his father. They were part of the plunder brought from Sanur, Cudapa, and the Carnatic: some of them had formerly belonged to the Mahometan kings of Vijayapur, and Golconda: but the greater number had been the property of the Nabob Ali Vahib Khan, brother of Mahomet Ali, of the Carnatic, and were taken by Hyder in the fort of Chilor during the year 1780."

We can scarcely boast of any valuable new editions of the Greek or Roman classics within the period to which we are circumscribed, though several of the existing editions have been re-imprinted with augmented beauty and accuracy. The only exception worthy of being advanced against this general remark is, the Cambridge edition of *Æschylus*, by Mr. Butler, under the title of "*Æschyli Tragædiæ quæ supersunt, deperditarum fabularum fragmenta, et scholia Græca; ex editione Thomæ Stanleii, cum versione Latina ab ipso emendata, &c. accedunt Variæ Lectiones, et Notæ virorum doctorum criticæ et philologicæ, quibus suas passim intertextuit Samuel Butler, A. M. Typis ac Sumptibus Academicis.*" Tom. I. 4to. p. 591. pr. 1*l*. 11*s*. 6*d*. vel. Tom. II. 8vo. pr. 16*s*. It is more than twelve years since the Cambridge University had determined upon a reprint of Stanley's text of *Æschylus*. The charge was at first offered to Professor Porson, but he did not choose to be bound down to any individual text whatever, and especially to Stanley's. We wish much that this point had been relinquished on the part of the university; for though Stanley's is upon the whole as unexceptionable a text as any that embraces the entire mass of the gathered fragments

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fragments of this admirable dramatist, yet the very numerous corrections, and of an unquestionable kind, that have been made by later critics, renders it highly expedient that a literal reprint of Stanley should not have been so imperatively insisted upon. Mr. Porson having refused, the task was offered to Mr. Butler of St. John's College; and the work before us, (its prolegomena and subsidia taken into consideration,) sufficiently proves that a better choice could not have been made. Mr. Butler professes to have collated four MSS. not previously consulted; and he appears to have collated them attentively. Upon the whole, we think, the present edition does honour to the university and to the editor.

At translations from the ancient classics we have had several attempts: and in one instance, at least, a very honourable and successful one. We allude to Mr. Elton's "Remains of Hesiod the Ascræan, translated from the Greek into English Verse: with a preliminary Dissertation and Notes." Of these "Remains" the Theogony is rendered in blank verse, the Works and Days in rhyme. In both the translator shows considerable skill and poetic powers; though we think him far superior in the former: his cadences run musically, and are sufficiently varied; and his general diction and arrangement bears a general though by no means a servile resemblance to Paradise Lost. The notes appear to be chiefly compiled from the different editors of the Ascræan bard, with extracts from Mr. Bryant's Mythology.

"Translations in Poetry and Prose, from the Greek Poets and prose Authors; consisting of a chro-

nological Series of the most valuable, scarce, and faithful Translations extant, and *several never before published*. By Francis Lee, A. M." &c. vol. I. part I. 8vo. p. 60. This first fascicle of a very voluminous collection, consists also of Hesiod, partly by the compiler himself, and partly by Cooke: for it ought not to be concealed from the world, that the Reverend Francis Lee proposes to *correct and amend*, according to his own taste, every translator who may happen to fall into his hands in the course of his projected series. Many of these may certainly admit of improvement, but it does not appear from the specimens now before us, that Mr. Francis Lee is the person exactly qualified for such an undertaking.

"The Iliad of Homer translated into English Blank Verse: by the Rev. James Morrice, A. M. Rector of Betsbanger, &c." We are afraid Mr. Morrice has been guilty of more than one sin in quitting his Greek testament for the Iliad, and exchanging the cure of souls for the manufactory of bad verses. This attempt to improve upon Cowper, with the kind of powers exhibited by the author, argues an alarming degree of that morbid affection of the intellect (whether of the brain or the heart we cannot stay to enquire) which moralists and theologians have denominated *vanity*, and nosologists *φιλαντία*. We trust it is not yet incurable.

"The Satires of Aulus Persius Flaccus translated, with Notes on the original: by the Rev. F. Howe, A. M." 8vo. This is rather a paraphrase than a version of the original. In point of actual merit we can by no means place it on a par with Mr. Drummond's translation:

lation: but as explanatory of many obscure passages in Persius, from his very abrupt manner, it may have its use in schools.

Of native and original poems we have had a plentiful crop; but we are afraid that few of them have been so skilfully cultivated, and brought to perfection, as to be in much demand, or bear a very high price at the market. Among the foremost, and as an honourable exception to this general remark, we have to notice Mr. Campbell's "Gertrude of Wyoming, a Pennsylvanian Tale; and other poems." The whole in this volume is truly excellent; and the first poem, which is the longest, is the most excellent: there is an union of sublimity and pathos, of audacity and tenderness, of regularity and variety, of cadence and harmony, in the plot and execution of this admirable production, that proves the writer to possess a genius of the first magnitude, and lifts him to an exalted point in the scale of poetic merit.

"The Mother, by Mrs. West." This is a well-written piece of blank verse upon the important duties of a mother in the various periods of her life, and of the lives of her family. It is divided into five books: the versification is for the most part smooth, the language forcible and generally select, though in a few instances mean and vulgar. The style exhibits much spirit; the sentiments are of the best kind, and the didactic parts are richly illustrated by an admirable selection of appropriate images and similes. The general diction is a mixt imitation of Cowper and Southey.

"Horæ Ionicæ: a Poem descriptive of the Ionian Islands, and Part of the adjacent Coast

of Greece: by Waller Rodwell Wright, Esq." 8vo. This poem also is well entitled to our approbation. It is the result of the author's actual observations on what was lately denominated "the Republic of the Seven Islands," during his short residence in that quarter, in the capacity of consul-general to his Britannic Majesty, shortly after the peace of Amiens. It is the genuine impression of local scenery, connected with history, upon a mind well stored with knowledge, and deeply impressed with the true feeling and spirit of poetry. It is totally free from affectation, and replete with pleasing imagery and interesting reflections.

"Reliques of Robert Burns, consisting chiefly of original Letters, Poems, and Critical Observations on Scottish Songs. Collected and published by R. H. Cromek." 8vo. These reliques contain, in the poetical part of them, passages, and some whole pieces, as sweet, as affecting, and as impressive, as any we have met with in the regular series of his poems already before the public: and in many of the letters we trace not only a mind most excellently gifted, but most excellently disposed, and duly sensible of the importance of morality and religion. These were, of course, written in his earlier life. We recommend the volume most earnestly to those who are already in possession of a regular set of his poems, and even to those who are not.

"Lady Jane Grey: a Tale in two Books: with miscellaneous Poems in English and Latin: by Francis Hodgson, A.M. &c." 8vo. We cannot so much compliment Mr. Hodgson upon his powers for original composition, as for trans-

lation. In his version of Juvenal he was often respectable, though he seldom equalled Mr. Giffard: and in the work before us falls beneath both Young and Rowe, who have exercised their powers upon the same subject.

Of the other poems, it will be sufficient to give a list of them. "The Renovation of India, a Poem: with the Prophecy of the Ganges, an Ode." The writer need not to have concealed his name: there is much promise in many passages in both. "The Church Yard, and other Poems: by George Woodley." 8vo. Here, too, we meet with a considerable portion of modest merit: the "Church Yard," which is in blank verse, exhibits feeling and harmony; of the minor poems, one or two in the ballad style are well conceived, well finished, and truly pathetic. "Fingal, an Epic Poem, by Ossian, rendered into verse by Archibald M'Donald." This gentleman has equally misimproved his time and mistaken his talents. "Pursuits of Agriculture: a Satirical Poem in three Cantos." The first two cantos only are at present communicated. The rage for this sort of pursuit, which has lately prevailed among noble, gentle, and simple, and the absurd schemes for improvement, both in breeding and tillage, afford fair and sufficient game for the satirist; and the present writer has ably availed himself of the opportunity. "English Bards and Scotch Reviewers: a Satire." 12mo. This is from the pen of Lord Byron, who appears to be yet smarting under the uncourtly lash of the Edinburgh Review. There is

considerable point in many of the ideas, and force in many of the lines.

The Drama has furnished us with but little for comment; and that little, but of little value. From Mr. William Gardiner we have received "the Sultana, or the Jealous Queen, a tragedy," upon which the curtain of oblivion has already fallen. From an unknown hand we have also received "Pæ-tus and Arria; a tragedy in five acts." To this is prefixed a letter to Mr. Sheridan, in which the author deplors that the stage is carefully barred against all except those who have power or interest in the theatres. To this writer, however, it ought to be matter of consolation that it is so; for his fate would be sealed the moment he made his appearance. "Valentine's Day; a new and original Comedy, in three Acts: *by one Anonymous*:" and "the Meteor; a short Blaze, but a bright one: a Farce in two Acts, by J. B. Gent."

Of the novels, tales, and romances for the year, the following are the chief: Mrs. Moore's "Cælebs in Search of a Wife;" Mrs. Grant's "Memoirs of an American Lady;" Miss Edgeworth's "Tales of Fashionable Life;" Miss Owen's "Woman, or Ida of Athens;" "Partenopex de Blois;" "Nubilia in Search of a Husband;" Mr. Bland's "Four Slaves;" Mr. Latham's "London;" Mr. Southwood's "Delworth, or Elevated Generosity;" Mr. Dallas's "Knights: Tales, illustrative of the Marvellous;" Miss Reave's "Mysterious Wanderer;" and Mrs. Norris's "Julia of England."

FOREIGN LITERATURE,

Of the Year 1809.

CHAPTER I.

BIBLICAL AND THEOLOGICAL.

Containing a Sketch of the chief Productions of Germany, France, and America.

IN reviewing the productions of the biblical critics of Germany, we have often had occasion to hint at Professor Paulus's "*Kommentar iiber das Neue Testament*," "*Commentary on the New Testament*," as in a state of annual progress. This work has now so far advanced as to have attained its fourth volume in octavo, and with this to have completed the range of the four gospels. It has touched, therefore, upon a resting point; and has so completely characterized itself, as to enable us, in as short a space as possible, to give a comprehensive view of the learned author's general scope and intention.

The commentary is ushered into the world by a preface, in which we are distinctly told, that the main concern of the work is correctly to appreciate what are the *real historical* contents of the New Testament: and in the prosecution of this concern, the author, with an audacity that effectually triumphs over the sacred nature of his undertaking, sifts and scrutinizes facts, dates, and doctrines, with as an untrembling a hand, as if he were

settling so many points in profane history. The first three volumes are devoted, in a conjoint harmony, to the gospels of St. Luke, St. Matthew, and St. Mark, arranged in an order analogous to the priority of time in which he supposes them to have been written. The fourth volume appertains exclusively to St. John.

In opening with the gospel of St. Luke, he appears in some degree to favour Mr. Marsh's hypothesis of a common source, from which all the three cognate gospels were derived. He at least hints that there might have been a kind of *oral* evangelists, who went about as *rhapsodists*, repeating from memory those particulars which they had collected concerning the history of our Saviour; as he does also that there might have been earlier *written* biographies, from which succeeding historians borrowed. All which, however, is, in our opinion, an unpardonable sally of imagination (to call it by no severer expression) in a man who professes to confine himself to the most rigid models of criticism

criticism, and to a naked investigation of *real* history. With regard to the gospel of St. Luke itself, however, we are compelled, in honesty, to state that, so far from being one of the pervulgated *rhapsodies* of the day, in the writer's opinion it bears evident marks of being "a private rescript from and for a private person;" and that person he *supposes* (for, after all, it is little more than *supposition*) to be, not Theophilus, son of the high priest Channas, and himself high priest for a short time at the death of Tiberius, but Theophilus characterized by a citation from a very ancient writer, and preserved in Castell. Lex. Heptagl. as *primus credentium et celeberrimus apud Alexandrienses*. And having thus summarily established that Theophilus was a native of Alexandria, and, of course, St. Luke a preacher to its inquisitive inhabitants; he adroitly jumps to the conclusion, that it was the curiosity of the Alexandrians that occasioned the composition of the Greek gospels. M. Paulus evinces equal ingenuity in his attempts to explain many of those incidents, which have hitherto been regarded as miraculous interpositions, and of high consequence that they should be so regarded. Thus, the dumbness with which Zacharias was seized while burning incense in the temple, is ascribed to a common paralytic stroke; and the recovery of his speech to the rapturous and overpowerful feeling of joy when his infant was on the point of being named. So the holy conception is ascribed, not to a mere afflatus of the divine Spirit, but to his peculiar superintendence during the act of common generation: and a vast quantity of cabalistic learning is raked out to support this idea. With this view

of the subject the author admits the pedigree, as given by St. Matthew, not to have been superadded, but to have formed a part of the general history from the first. He conceives the birth of our Saviour to have taken place nearly four, and possibly eight years, anterior to the vulgar æra. The opening of the heavens, and the appearance of the dove upon our Lord's baptism, are resolved into the common aruspices of the day: while "the Spirit of God" was only beheld "*in his own inference*," as the result of the dove's appearance. The temptation was, of course, nothing more than a dream, an ecstasy, a vision. Of the miracles almost all of them are resolved into the operation of natural means, though some strangely perplex the professor, and force him to acknowledge that natural means seem inadequate to the general statement. It is observed, however, that the characters of priest and physician were commonly united in early times, and especially among the Essenes; and M. Paulus *shrewdly suspects* that our Saviour received his elementary education in some Essene *Midrash* or convent school. The sudden cessation of the storm, Matt. viii. 23—27, is regarded as an ordinary occurrence: so is the cure of all the dæmoniacks, who are of course supposed to be hallucinated, or insane. All that was necessary was to operate upon the fancy a thorough conviction that no dæmon whatever (such as the vulgar conceived to be the cause of the disease) could resist the Messiah, the vicegerent of God. "The great object of the physician," observes M. Paulus, "was to impress the fancy with this idea, to fill the mind with this conviction, and by this means to make sure of the effect."

fect." The feeding the five thousand persons, besides women and children, with five barley-loaves and two small fishes, and the parallel miracle that occurred afterwards, are in like manner attempted to be resolved into natural occurrences—into a general distribution of the bread of the multitude, in conjunction with that possessed by the disciples. In like manner the miracle of our Saviour's walking upon the sea, and saving the apostle Peter from sinking, as he was also walking towards him by his permission, is a miracle no longer: this critical and severe adherent to the literal truth of history, has, it seems, discovered that our Saviour was walking, not on the sea, but on the sea shore; and that Peter, who boldly swam towards him, became faint and tired, and would have sunk from fatigue or apprehension just as he had reached the shore, had not Jesus benevolently stretched out his hand and assisted him. The transfiguration is also, it seems, nothing more than a natural incident: the cloud that settled on the hill on which it occurred, and obscured the view, and alarmed the disciple that accompanied our Saviour, was a phænomenon common to the country after sun-rise. Jesus, it seems, met two strangers upon this hill, and retired with them far into the cloud, "probably that they might not be interrupted by the unseasonable discourse of Peter, James, and John, who were yet hardly awake. When Jesus and the two strangers were about to separate, the subject of their conversation was once more vividly resumed; of which the three disciples, who were left behind, heard only these words, "this is my beloved Son, in whom I am

well pleased—*hear him!*" which words were probably spoken with an elevated voice.

But it is useless to pursue this disgusting mode of interpretation any farther, a mode just as blasphemous as it is puerile and ridiculous. That our readers, however, may not conceive we have too highly coloured the professor's admirable talent, we shall let him develope at full length, before we take our leave of him, the account of the storm that is usually supposed to have ceased at his express command. See Matth. viii. 23—27. Mark iv. 36—40. Luke viii. 22—25. "As they were crossing to the opposite coast," says M. Paulus, "accompanied by numerous boats which were hired by the votaries of Jesus, a sudden gust fell upon the lake, and a concussion (probably the effects of an earthquake) was felt, by means of which the boats were covered or filled with water; whilst he, *tired of preaching*, was fallen asleep." "It is only because he is asleep that misfortune overtakes us," exclaim the good people. They awake him; "the holy man will be able to help us;" such is the natural hope of persons in danger. Jesus demands from all of them courage and confidence; for faintheartedness is the forerunner of destruction; it prevents all possible remedy. *With a presence of mind resembling that of Cæsar*, he asks the pilot, "how can you be so faint-hearted? do you not carry the Messiah?"—Nor had he been long awake, long attentive to the violence of the wind, before he formed the calculation, and expressed that it would soon be over. On lakes and in sultry atmospheres, especially where the contiguous district is mountainous, such tempests

pests are of very confined and fugitive operation. This was speedily at an end: those who had escaped, agitated between terror and astonishment, ascribed their preservation to the happy consequences of the presence of Jesus. 'Even the storms, even the waves, not merely the *kakodæmons* (the evil spirits), give way before him.' Thus they whisper to one another. That Jesus knew, or that he approved the whisper, is no where stated."

Such are the wonderful faculties displayed in this new method of harmonizing and explaining the gospels. The prominent features of facts are all frittered away, whenever they offer resistance: miracles are paralleled by miracles, or pretended miracles drawn from other sources; and all the rubbish of legendary rules, and old wives fables, such as M. Paulus himself would be ashamed to quote on any other occasion—figurative passages of the ancient poets, popular rumours, traditions, and imaginations, are equally had recourse to, and ransacked with wonderful industry, to form a series of facts and adventures as *romantic* as those of the New Testament. And yet M. Paulus avows himself to be a believer in the New Testament—to be a zealous champion in its favour, and to have drawn up the book before us upon the most rigid and scrupulous laws of criticism, and with an undeviating adherence to the plain, naked sentiments of real history. At this moment M. Paulus is filling a theological chair; is president of the consistory at Würzburg; and is regarded through the greater part of Germany as the first biblical scholar, and the most enlightened expositor on the continent. Upon this

melancholy subject we can hardly avoid falling into a multitude of reflexions closely connected with it. The work before us proves incontrovertibly, that the general religion of the continent is as loose and fanciful as its politics: that the one is as little worth pursuing as the other: but the awful events of the day sufficiently prove, that the moment is at length arrived, in which there is no great chance of either the one or the other being preserved. A severe spirit of visitation from the Almighty is abroad, and the whirlwind which has swept away every political institution, will not perhaps stay its course till the Babel-buildings of philosophism and infidelity shall be as completely thrown into ruins.

"Hieropolis: von J. C. Greiling." "Hieropolis: by J. C. Grieling." 8vo. There is much of that sort of learning in this work for which Germany has been for several ages conspicuous, formal, dull, and deeply recondite; and much of that sort of spirit for which she is conspicuous in the present, we mean an inclination to regard every species of religion as entitled to the same reverence, and none of them as entitled to any reverence whatever, except so far as they may prove contributory to some fanciful scheme of mere morality or national good, and will subject themselves to the weights and scales made use of in appreciating common historical facts. There are three distinct bases in the opinion of the writer before us, on which a national religion may fairly be established: these are truth, predominance, and utility. In other words, no government ought to give actual support to what is manifestly false: no government

government ought to force upon a people what is directly contrary to their inclination: no government ought to countenance any system that is obviously mischievous or useless. But any individual government may act upon all these bases at the same time, provided the dispositions and feelings of different districts or classes of the community are so essentially different as to justify such a variation: so that in the government of our own country, the author would probably wish to see protestantism established in Great Britain, catholicism in Ireland, and brahmism in India. Whatever may be the base, or even the nature of the established religion, it should have four *sacraments*, as he chooses to designate his different heads of statistics, and each of these should be expressly under the controul of the civil magistrate: 1. A sacrament of registration for ascertaining the descent of property, the extent of the population, the number of fighting men, &c. 2. A sacrament of *confirmation*, but not such as has been usually understood by this term in the christian church; but a general juvenile muster, to determine on the moral and literary progress of the age. 3. A sacrament of marriage, for family and political purposes: and 4. A sacrament of burial, to examine into the mode by which death was produced, so as to guard against every criminal cause of it, and to ascertain with accuracy in whom is legitimately vested the property of the deceased.

The "Gerchichte der Practischen Theologie," "History of Fractical Theology," of M. Ammon, still continues to issue from the Gottingen press. We noticed the first volume some time since as

containing the History of the Homiletics from the period of Huss to that of Luther: three additional volumes have since been added, and the work is now brought down as low as the author dares to venture, and that is to the commencement of the French revolution. To this period he maintains a sufficient manliness of thinking and writing: and we think him prudent in having stopped where he has done, for it is better to be silent than to be either hypocritical, or a rash despiser of danger.

"Gerchichte der Entstehung und Ausbildung des Christlichen Gefellschafts verfassung im Römischen Staate." "History of the Origin and progressive Formation of the Constitution of the Christian Church in the Roman Empire: by Professor Plank." There is a view of liberality in this work which we cannot fail to commend, and we much wish to see imitated. While M. Plank, with sound and able argument, defends the creed of his own church, he by no means assumes the character of dogmatism or infallibility. His authorities appear to be correct, his reasoning for the most part just, and his style perspicuous.

"Eine Predigt zur Befoerderung der Wohlthätigen Entrwecke der Gesellschaft von Freunden Nothleidender Anslænder," &c. "Sermon preached at the German Lutheran Chapel in the Savoy, 28th Aug. 1808, by C. F. A. Steinkopff, A.M. Pastor of the Congrégation; for the Benefit of the Society of Friends to Foreigners in Distress; with a Brief Account of the Society." This sermon is worthy of notice on two accounts: first, in respect of its own intrinsic merit, the impassioned and eloquent style with which it presses upon the bo-

som of every reader the important duty it discusses; and next, because it describes, and sets before the public the existence of a charitable institution, to which every christian should contribute, to whom the political burdens of the times allow the necessary means. Foreigners of all kinds, of whatever country or religion, are the acknowledged objects of this benevolent establishment when in distress, provided they are neither licentious in their lives, nor impostors in their pretensions. Germans, Dutch, Swedes, French, Swiss, Italians, Norwegians, Danes, Russians, Spaniards, and Poles, not only are equally objects of the institution, but have actually been relieved by it in the course of the year before us. Here indeed we trace one of the noblest features of "one catholic apostolic church;" and we ardently wish it the success to which it is so amply entitled.

"Les Martyrs; ou le Triomphe de la Religion Chrétienne." "The Martyrs: or the Triumph of the Christian Religion: by F. A. de Chateaubriand," &c. 3 vols. 8vo. This is a very extraordinary production, and has acquired in France a popularity which has been almost fatal to the celebrated writer of it. There are certain spirited passages, which, whether so intended or not, have been construed by the French government to be so many sarcastic reflections on Bonaparté: in consequence of which the author has been banished, and is at this moment on the point of seeking an asylum in our own country; while a nephew of M. Chateaubriand's, who delayed to accompany his uncle, has sustained the whole weight of Bonaparté's vengeance, and has been shot upon some frivolous pretence.

As to the work itself, however,

we can by no means approve of it. We have some acquaintance with M. Chateaubriand as the author of "Le Genie du Christianisme," of "Atala," and of "Panorama;" and we have occasionally had to admire the force of his imagination, the delicacy of his taste, and the accuracy and amenity of his descriptions; yet there is but little upon which we can find it possible to compliment him in the composition before us. It is a kind of religious rhapsody, or poem in prose, intended to depict and compare the two characters of paganism and christianity, and to give the palm to the latter. For this purpose, the epoch selected is the reign of Dioclesian, before Christianity had yet become the religion of the state, when its altars were first erected near the altars of the pagan idols, and the professors of christianity had their faith severely put to the test by a variety of persecutions, with the tenth of which, or that which took place A. D. 303, the work commences, the infernal spirits being feigned to have obtained permission to excite it. The work has many excellencies, but it is borne down by its defects: nor is the least of these that which is perpetually putting into a contrast, and equally embodying the fabulous divinities of Greece and Rome, with the "glorious hierarchy of heaven" of the christian religion. Something of this kind will be perceived even in the invocation, in which, desirous of securing the favour of two rival patronesses, the author thus supplicates with a double address, the Muse of Truth with the Muse of Falsehood: "*Celestial Muse!* thou who didst inspire the poet of Sorrentum, and the blind man of Britain: thou who didst place thy solitary throne on Tabor; thou who

who delightest in solemn thoughts, in grave and sublime meditations—thy assistance I now implore! On the harp of David teach me the songs I am about to recite; give, especially, to my eyes, some of those tears shed by Jeremiah over the misfortunes of Sion. I am about to rehearse the sufferings of the persecuted church:—and thou, virgin of Pindus, sprightly daughter of Greece! descend also, in thy turn, from the brow of Helicon. Oh! animated Goddess of Fable! thou whom misfortunes and even death itself cannot sadden, I will not disdain the flowery garlands with which thou overspreadest the tombs! Come! Muse of Falsehoods! Come, struggle with the Muse of Truth. Formerly she suffered cruelty under thy name; now, by thy defeat, grace her triumph, and confess her superior pretensions to reign over the lyre!”

“Irenée Bonfils, sur la Religion, de ses Peres et de nos Peres.” 8vo. “Ireneus Bonfils, on the Religion of his Fathers and our Fathers.” Nothing can be worse than the tendency of this book, which is written for the express purpose of equalizing all religions, and is grounded upon a text of scripture forcibly perverted in its application, for the express purpose of adapting it to the present occasion, in which we are commanded to “follow the religion of our fathers.”

“Sur la Poesie Sacrée,” &c. “On Sacred Poetry: by M. Parseval.” In this treatise the writer appears to have a proper sense of the boldness and beauties of the poetry of the Old Testament, and has selected a variety of the most sublime and striking passages, with a view of putting them into French verse. For the most part,

however, we prefer his taste to his poetry, and easily perceive that M. Parseval, like many writers whom we could mention of our country, has elegance enough to admire what he has not genius enough to imitate. He clearly evinces, moreover, that he only knows the scriptures from the common versions; and hence, when these versions have erred, he has not attempted to amend them. We now particularly allude to his translation of the sublime address of the Deity to the patriarch Job.

The American press is certainly rising into reputation: we have seen many works well printed, and of some literary estimation. But on the subject of theology the Americans seem rather disposed to reprint the long established labours of the more eminent divines and theologians of the parent state, than to indulge in novelties of their own: and it is one of the best marks of a sound and sober judgment. In reality, there is but little that we have met with from America of original attempt in the course of the period to which we are now limited, that is in any degree worthy of notice. From this general charge, however, we must except a posthumous volume of “Sermons on important Subjects; by the late Rev. David Tappan, D.D. Hollis-Professor of Divinity in the University at Cambridge (New England). To which are prefixed a Biographical Sketch of the Author, and a Sermon preached at his Funeral by Dr. Holmes, Boston.” D. T. was inaugurated to the professorship of divinity in Harvard University, December 26, 1792: he died Aug. 27, 1803, aged 51. His discourses combine a fluent style, a train of clear and natural argument, and various interspersions

terspersions of warm and glowing eloquence. The following passage, extracted from Dr. Holmes's Biographical Sketch, displays not only the deep loss his countrymen have sustained by his decease, but the general bent of those who boast of having freed themselves from the shackles of fanaticism. "When he was first introduced into the professor's chair, the religious state of the university was very alarming. For some time *the students had received no regular instruction in divinity. Books containing the poison of deism were eagerly read, and the minds of many were corrupted. Immorality and disorder, in various shapes, had become prevalent, and mocked the power of persuasion, AND THE ARM OF AUTHORITY.* The great object of his public and private lectures was to *defend the principles of natural and revealed religion, and to lead the students to a knowledge of their maker and redeemer.*" A more hideous state of anarchy it is impossible to conceive; and we may in vain ransack the history of pagan

nations for a parallel. A divinity chair without divinity lectures; divinity students without regular instruction; disorderly, immoral, deistical; equally mocking the precepts of a teacher who was at length appointed to instruct them, and the *arm of the law*: a professor of divinity in a university calling itself *christian*, instead of confirming the students in the common belief of the country, compelled to *defend* that belief against their infidel objections, and to lead them to the first principles of a knowledge of their *maker*, as well as of their *redeemer*. Of late years we have heard much of the violent and vindictive spirit of the inhabitants of the United States; of their political and moral irregularities. Is it possible that it can be otherwise, when we behold their very schools of public instruction thus tainted with moral pestilence and destruction? We read with pleasure, however, that the labours of Dr. Tappan were followed with a beneficial effect.

CHAPTER II.

PHYSICAL AND MATHEMATICAL.

comprising a Sketch of the chief Productions of Germany, Sweden, France, Italy, Holland, and America.

HANDBUCH der Pathologischen Anatomie, von Dr. F. Voigtel, mit Zusätzen, von P. Mechel." 3 Bänder, 8vo. "Manual of Anatomical Pathology, by F. G. Voigtel, with Additions, P. F. Mechel, 3 vols. 8vo. Halle." This work is singularly comprehensive in its plan, and bears marks of great pains having been bestowed on its execution. Dr. Voigtel's arrangement is that of hard and soft parts, solids, and fluids, in the usual order described in systematic treatises on anatomy. It begins with an account of all the morbid affections to which the teguments and bones are liable; and in notes added to every chapter, gives a list of authorities for every fact, and for every circumstance mentioned in the text. Some histories of cases are related, and many important facts are stated on the authority of morbid preparations, still preserved in the museums of Mechel and Loder at Halle. It becomes us to state, however, that the authority quoted is not always of the purest and most select character; and, that the author is often tediously minute and prolix. Nevertheless, though in obscurity and scrupulous caution, inferior to the *Morbid Anatomy* of J. Bailey; and in elegance and simplicity of style, to the *Anatomie medicale* of Portal, this work has considerable merit, and has no oc-

casion to blush at being placed on the same shelf.

"Fragmenta de viribus Medicamentorum, &c." "Fragments on the positive Effects of Medicines, or those observed in the Human System: by Samuel Hahnemann, M. D." 2 vols. 8vo. Leipsic. The articles here treated of are aconitum napellus, acris tinctura, (a tincture of caustic potash saturated with a tincture of vinegar,) arnica montana, atropa belladonna laurus camphora, lytta vesicatoria, capsicum, annuum, matricaria chamomilla, cinchona officinalis, menispermum coccus, copaifera balsamum, cuprum vitriolatum, digitalis purpurea, drosera rotundifolia, hyoscyamus niger, ignatia amara, ipecacuanha, ledum palustre, helliboras niger, daphne mezereum, strychnos nux vomica, opium, anemone pratensis, rheum, statura stramonium, valeriana officinalis, and veratrum album. This work enjoys a high reputation in its native country, and undoubtedly discovers much assiduity on the part of the writer: but it is greatly deficient in judgment, and in the most extraordinary manner jumbles together things of no consequence with points of high importance.

"Charakteristische zuge zur Geschichte der Verirrungen des Menschlichen Geistes. Leipsic, 1809." "Characteristic Outlines for a History of the Derangement of the Mind."

Mind." This collection contains some of the most extraordinary occurrences of hallucination and mental deception that we have ever met with. Among others we may particularly allude to that of a cobbler at Venice of a temperament highly fanatic; who, after having, like Origen, castrated himself, out of love for chastity, conceived shortly afterwards that the next most acceptable service he could render to his maker, would be that of crucifying himself precisely after the manner of our Saviour. With this view he was long engaged in selecting what he thought would be the most appropriate wood for the cross: having determined upon this, he made the cross with his own hands; fixed it against the front of his house; manufactured a crown of thorns which he thrust so forcibly on his head as to make the blood pour down over his face: then thrust four long pails through his legs and arms; next forced a spear very deeply into his side; and lastly, by means of ropes and a pulley with which he had provided himself, drew himself out of the window of his chamber and elevated himself upon the cross. The astonished populace, immediately on seeing him, interposed, and in spite of his resistance, took him down to the Santo Servolo, a lunatic hospital at Venice, where, notwithstanding the wounds he had inflicted on himself, he survived for ten months. This man's name was Matthew Lovati: the fact occurred as late as 1805, and the case has been duly certified by Doctor Cesar Ruggieri, professor of surgery at Venice, who attended him.

"Account of the Pseudo Syphilitic cutaneous Disease, Radesyge, prevalent in some Part of Sweden

and Norway: by Hugo H. Böcker M. D. Upsal." This disease, called also in some parts of Sweden *Sallflus*, was till of late supposed to be a degenerated form of the true syphilis, originating from the morbid action of a scrophulous habit: it is now pretty well ascertained, however, to be a distinct disease, equally different from each: the characteristic marks of which are ill-conditioned sores, with excavated uneven bottoms and hard edges arising either from reddish spots or from copper-coloured humours on various parts of the skin, without any previous venereal infection or primary symptom; accompanied during the progress, by swelling of the bones, sometimes by caries, and, unless checked by proper remedies, ending with destruction of various parts, and total loss of health and life. Mercury, with or without an admixture of henbane, is the only medicine which can certainly be depended upon.

"Tableau Methodique d'un Cours d'Histoire Naturelle Medicale, &c." "Synopsis of a Course of Medical Natural History, in which are united and classified the chief Mineral Waters of the Republic, the Places pointed out where they spring, their Temperature, the Substances they contain, their Virtues, Uses, Degrees of Value, of Celebrity, &c. by Bernard Peyrilhe, Professor of Medical Natural History at the Parisian school of Medicine. 8vo. The title is sufficient to explain the nature of the work: it is, in reality, nothing more or less than a free translation of Linnæus's *Materia Medica*, with such additions and improvements as M. Peyrilhe has thought necessary to accommodate it as a text-book for his lectures. These are pointed out in a preface possessed of more modesty

modesty than we should have expected from the title. They consist in the addition of the genuine characters to each article, by which the work becomes a kind of manual of medical botany; in pointing out more uniformly than is done by Linnéus himself, the officinal parts of each vegetable; in adding a description of the substance; in enumerating its active principles; in stating the dose; in indicating the succedaneums; in describing its technical uses, and in appreciating its value. The volume comprises a great portion of real knowledge condensed into a small space.

“*Le Physiognomiste, &c.*” “*The Physiognomist; or, Observer of Man, contemplating the Relations of his Manners and Character to the Lineaments of his Face, the Forms of his Body, his Gait, his Voice, &c. with Observations of the Resemblance of Individuals to certain Animals: by J. B. Porta. Translated from the Latin.*” This work professes to present an epitome of the physiognomonic doctrines of the ancients. It is divided into two books: the first of which treats of the exterior parts of man, and of the signs which are presented by them: the second discusses the internal qualities. Upon the whole, though the author treats the subject seriously, this work affords a fair specimen of the absurdities, incongruities, and unfounded assertions, which were broached by ancient authors of great weight and influence, and which may vie with the most finished and highly concocted nonsense of modern cranioscopy.

“*Memoires de Physiques et Chimie, de la Société d’Arcueil. Tom. 1, 8vo. Paris.*” “*Physical and Chemical Memoirs of the*

Society of Arcueil.” Arcueil is the country residence to which the veteran Berthollet has retired, after a life devoted to physical science, and productive of many of the most valuable discoveries and improvements that have characterized the present day. The pursuits and feelings of youth and manhood, however, accompany him still:

Even in his ashes live their wonted fires;
and once a fortnight, he has for some time been in the habit of gathering around him a few ingenious and active individuals of like passions and endearments, who devote the day to philosophical occupations. Hence the name of the society, whose memoirs we are now noticing. Among other associates we find the names of La Place, Berthollet the younger, Biot, Gay Lussac, Humboldt, Thenard, Decandolle, and Collet Decostils. Among the most valuable papers in the volume before us, for we cannot enumerate the whole, are, 1. “*Observations on the Intensity and Inclination of the Magnetic Power, made in France, Switzerland, Italy, and Germany: by M. M. Humboldt and Gay Lussac.*” These observations are the result of an attempt to explore more accurately the laws of terrestrial magnetism during an excursion of nearly a twelvemonth, from March 15, 1805, to May 1, 1806, through a great part of the continent. The travellers were favoured by the minister of marine with a dipping needle of Borda’s construction, and which had been executed by Lenoir for the voyage of Entrecasteaux. To measure the vibrations, they had a magnetic bar suspended by a thread of raw silk, in a box with glass sides. These instruments would

would appear to have been susceptible of considerable delicacy. The traversing of the bar seemed not affected by any change of temperature, nor sensibly by the difference of elevation. It gave the same result at Milan after an interval of six months: and the vibrations were as frequent on the summits of the Alps as in the plains of Italy. From the result of the experiments at Berlin, Paris, Milan, Rome and Naples, it appears evident, that, in proceeding towards the south of Europe, the force of magnetism gradually diminishes: Naples seems to form the only exception, but this discrepancy was perhaps owing to local circumstances, to the attraction of the ferruginous lava, and other volcanic productions of Mount Vesuvius. 2. "Memoir on the Nature of the Gass contained in the Air-bladder of Fishes. By M. Biot." Every one knows that fishes are enabled to sink or rise in their native element by means of what is called *a sound* or *air-bladder*, which they can either distend or compress at option. The difficulty is to conceive how the air contained in the sound is procured. It must obviously be derived from the liquid in which they swim: but whether extended by mechanical action, or secreted by some process of the animal economy, naturalists have not yet decided. The object of M. Biot in the experiments here recorded, was to determine this question. These experiments were performed at intervals on the shores of the savage isles of Yizza and Fromentera, while engaged in extending the measurement of the meridian by a chain of triangles from Barcelona across the Mediterranean. And it is consoling to reflect that the

academician was allowed to carry forward his interesting operations unmolested, and even under the protection of the British government, during a war which has unfortunately been prosecuted with a rancour disgraceful to civilized nations. The gass of the air-bladders of different fishes was examined by Volta's endiometer; and one curious fact at least was detected, namely, that the gass of fishes which reside in deep water holds a larger proportion of oxygen than that of fishes in shallower water. For the rest the gass appears to be uniformly different combinations of azot and oxygen, totally destitute of hydrogen, and containing scarcely any carbon, consequently evincing a near approach to atmospheric air: and for ourselves we have little doubt that it is in the main atmospheric air, separated from substances containing it, and which exist by accident or naturally in the sea. M. Biot, however, seems to be of a different opinion, and to conceive that the fish itself decomposes the water which constitutes his element, collects the oxygen into the air-bladder, and suffers the hydrogen to escape as it may. But it appears to us clear, that if fishes were naturally possessed of a power of this kind, they would not necessarily die at being plunged into water deprived of all air or oxygen: since they would be enabled hereby to secrete oxygen at pleasure. 3. "First Essay to determine the Variations of Temperature which the Gasses experience in changing their Density: with Considerations on their Capacity for Caloric. By M. Gay Lussac." This essay is upon a subject concerning which little is known for certain, notwithstanding the shrewd remarks, and elaborate experiments

ents of our own countrymen, Mr. Dalton and Mr. Leslie. The attention of M. Gay Lussac was immediately drawn to this subject by the very valuable book on heat, published by the latter gentleman: and the result of the experiments performed at Arcueil is as follows, though the whole is given with considerable diffidence and distrust. 1. When a void space becomes occupied by a gass, the heat evolved is not derived from the small residuum of air. When a vacuum is made to communicate with the like space filled with a gass, the thermometric variations are equal in both. In the same gass these thermometric variations are proportional to the changes of density. 4. The variations of temperature are not the same for all the gasses, but increase as the densities diminish. The capacities of any gass for caloric, diminish under the same volume with its density. 6. Their capacities for caloric, under equal volumes, are somehow reciprocally to their specific densities.

“ Sur la Loi de la Réfraction extraordinaire dans les Cristaux diaphanes. Par M. Laplace.”

“ On the Law of extraordinary Refraction in Diaphanous Crystals.”

This is a very curious and important paper, which we mean rather to announce than to analyze; since the latter would occupy far more space than we are able to allot to it. It was first read at the sitting of what is now called the *first class* of the National Institute, January 30, 1809, and has since been copied into the *Journal de Physique*. It has been long known to opticians, that crystals of different mediums have the remarkable property of making substances appear double, when viewed

1809.

through them in certain directions: the effect of their refraction being almost the same as if a rarer and a denser medium existed together in the same space; some part of the light passing through them being refracted in the same manner as if the denser medium alone were present, and some as if the rarer only were concerned. The reason of this double refraction is wholly unknown. The crystals of carbonat of lime, in their primitive form, have also a further peculiarity: they afford a double image, even when the object is viewed perpendicularly through the two opposite and parallel sides of a crystal; an effect which could never arise from the combination of any two mediums acting in the ordinary manner. In fact, one of the images only is seen according to the laws of ordinary refraction; and the place of the other is determined by a law, which is the object of the paper before us. This law was experimentally demonstrated, and very elegantly applied to the phænomena, by its first discoverer Huygens; but it was opposed by an hypothesis of Newton, and in consequence sunk for many years into oblivion. Mr. Haüy is the first of recent observers who has remarked, that the same law of extraordinary refraction is much nearer to the hypothesis of Huygens than of Newton: Dr. Wollaston has carried forward the same idea in a variety of accurate experiments, and the intention of M. Laplace, who does not sufficiently avow himself to be acquainted with Dr. Wollaston's researches, is to confirm the same theory.

“ Tables Astronomiques, publiées par le Bureau de Longitude, de France, &c.” “ Astronomical Tables published by the French Board

Board of Longitude: Parts I. and II." 4to. We have little need to do more than announce this commencement of the very valuable labours of the Board in question, since the substance of the work, and expunged of numerous errors in calculation, is already before the English reader in the third volume of Professor Vince's History of Astronomy. The tables herewith presented consist of those of the sun, of the moon, of Jupiter, and of Saturn. The first set are from the hand of M. Delambre, the second of M. Burg. To complete the work, it only remains that the tables of the other planets be added: when it is probable that the entire series, which at present does not belong to any great astronomical publication, will be incorporated into a future edition of Lalande, should any such take place.

"Traité de Topographe, d'Arpentage, et de Nivellement, &c." "Treatise on Topography, Land-Surveying, and Levelling. By L. Puissant, Professor of Mathematics in the Imperial Military School" 4to. This work is intended as a continuation of the author's well-known "Traité de Géodésie, or Exposition des Méthodes astronomiques et trigonométriques appliquées à la mesure de la Terre, &c." It contains some important theories not inserted in the preceding work; and is designed immediately to develop the applications of geometry to actual operations on the ground, and to graphical operations in the study or office. After offering a complete view of the trigonometrical computations which it is necessary to effect, in order to obtain the first elements of a chart or map, the author displays, at large, the construction of those

which are respectively termed geographical and particular; and then passes to the geometrical figure of portions of the earth, or what we usually call *surveying*, by the aid of the plain-table and other instruments; he then advances to those operations which regard the calculation of surfaces and the division of lands: then to the theory and practice of levelling, to the calculation of terraces, and other works of fortification: and finally, to the reduction of charts, and the collection of descriptive memoirs.

"Die Pflanzenthier, &c." "Zoophytes painted from nature by C. Espen. Nuremberg." We are glad to have an opportunity of announcing, that this elegant and accurate work is still continued. We have now reached the fifteenth livraison, or fascicle, enriched with four beautifully coloured plates.

"Abbildungen zur Anatomie der Insecten, &c." "Plates subservient to an anatomical description of Insects; by C. A. Ramdohr." No I. containing from plate 1, to plate 8, 4to. Halle. These plates represent the digestive organs of insects: they are to be followed by three other numbers when the work will close with letter-press "Essay on the Anatomy of Insects." We may perhaps return to it when it is completed.

"Anleitung zur Zergliederung der Vegetabilien, &c." "Elements of the Art of analyzing Vegetables upon chemical and physical principles: by S. F. Hermbstaedt." 8vo. Berlin. We do not perceive that the novelty of system, here offered would produce much practical benefit in the study of botany, even if it had a chance of being adopted.

"Handbuch einer topographischen

then Mineralogie, &c." "Manual of general Topographical Mineralogy: by C. E. Leonhard." 2 vols. 8vo. Frankfort. The author describes the different fossils in an alphabetical order, but arranged according to the different quarters of the globe, the different countries and districts in which they have been discovered; and scatters a few observations and illustrations as he proceeds. The dictionary form in which the work is presented to the public, renders it convenient for reference.

"Instituzioni di Botanica pratica, &c." Practical Elements of Botany, applicable to Medicine, to Physiology, to Economics, and the Arts: by Domenico Nocca." 2 vols. 8vo. Pavia. This is a very useful work, and highly creditable to the author's industry.

"Sulle Ossa Fossili di grandi Animali Terrestri et Marini." "On the Fossil Bones of huge Terrestrial and Marine Animals: by Sign. Cortesi, Judge of the Criminal Court of Piazenza." 4to. Milan. The bones here described were found in the Plaisantine mountains, in the state of Parma, and consist of detached relics, of an elephant of enormous size, of a rhinoceros, a dolphin, and a whale. M. Cortesi believes these to have been transported into the situation in which they were discovered by some great terrestrial revolution at a very remote period. The work is dedicated to M. Lacépède, and is ornamented with plates, well engraved upon stone, a device which we have formerly noticed to have been gaining reputation in Ger-

many, and which now appears to be adopted in most parts of Europe.

"Naamlyst der Geneesryke Plantgewassen in den Amsterdam-schen Kruidtuin." "Catalogue of Medical Plants cultivated in the Botanical Garden at Amsterdam: by G. Vrolik." 8vo. Amsterdam. This is a very useful *hortus*, but less extensive than we should have expected. It contains, moreover, only the systematic Latin nomenclature of Linnéus run through the four and twenty classes.

"Gerardi Vrolik Catalogus Plantarum, &c. Accedit introductio de studio Botanico recte instituendo." This is intended as an accompaniment for the preceding: and M. Vrolik has here given the species plantarum from Willdenow's edition, as well as added various valuable observations.

"Memoirs of the Philadelphia Society for promoting Agriculture: containing communications on various subjects in Husbandry, and Rural Affairs." vol. I. 8vo. Philadelphia. This useful institution was first established in 1785, and offered various useful hints in the American newspapers. It sunk, however, by degrees, into an oblivion, from which we rejoice to see it resuscitated. It comprizes forty-six articles, *some* of which evince more attention to the improvements adopted in the present country than we expected. The volume concludes with a statistical account of the Schuylkill permanent Bridge, a wooden structure which does great credit to the engineer who effected it.

CHAPTER III.

MORAL AND POLITICAL.

Containing a Sketch of the chief Productions of France, Germany, Spain, Italy, and America.

“**D**ISCOURS sur le Progès des Sciences, Lettres, et Arts, &c.” “Discourse on the Progress of the Sciences, Letters, and Arts, from 1789 to the present day (1808): or Report submitted by the French Institute to his Majesty, the Emperor and King, 1809.” This is a volume of very high interest and importance. We are told that on the 6th of February, his Majesty being in his council, a deputation from the mathematical and physical classes of the national institute was introduced by the minister of the interior, and admitted to the bar of the council, and delivered a copy of the report now offered, and which was specially drawn up by his order. It was preceded by an elegant and complimentary address from M. Bougainville, the oldest member, and therefore the president of the classes; after which it was read to Bonaparte by M. Delambre, secretary of the class of mathematics. We can only further observe, that it contains a fair and impartial account of the scientific and literary improvements which have taken place in Europe during the last nineteen years; in the course of which many of the more celebrated of our own countrymen are duly and honourably noticed. The latter part of the work is the production of M. Cuvier, and displays his accustomed talents. As the emperor’s answer is short, we can

just find space to copy it: “MMI. the presidents, secretaries, and deputies of the first class of the Institute—I was desirous to hear you on the progress of the human mind in these later times, in order that what you should have to say to me might be heard by all nations, and might shut the mouths of those detractors of the present age, who represent knowledge as retrograde, only because they wish for its extinction. I was also willing to be informed of what remained for me to do to encourage your labours, that I might console myself for not being able otherwise to contribute to their success. The welfare of my people, and the glory of my throne, are equally interested in the prosperity of the sciences. My minister of the interior will make a report on your demands. You may constantly rely on the effects of my protection.”

“Code de la Conscription en Recueil Chronologique, &c.” “Conscription Code: or Chronological Collection of the Laws and Orders of Government, of the Imperial Decrees relative to the levy of Conscripts, &c. from the year VI. to the year XIV. inclusive.” 8vo. Paris. This is the famous engine by which the despot of his own country has been able to become the tyrant of the whole continent. The laws of Draco were never half so severe: the whole is so minutely detailed, that to elude is impossible; substitution

tion is scarcely allowed in any case, and resistance is death. By the law of the directory, "all Frenchmen are pronounced soldiers; and when the country is declared in danger, every man is liable to be summoned to its defence." In any other conjuncture, "the wants of the army are to be relieved by the conscription:" and the requisite number of conscripts is determined by the senate or legislative body at the suggestion of the executive government. "All Frenchmen between the full age of twenty and twenty-five, inclusive," are liable to the conscription. Absentees, not presenting themselves within a month after the drawing, are declared refractory, proclaimed throughout the empire, and pursued as deserters. Parents continue responsible for their absent children till they can produce an official attestation of their death: and substitutes bear the name of their principals, that the latter may be known, and compelled to march, should his proxy desert or be lost from any other cause than death or wounds received in battle, within the term of two years. Officers of health, &c. furnishing false certificates of infirmity, &c. are subjected to five years imprisonment in irons. Conscripts detected in counterfeiting infirmities, or mutilating themselves, are punished corporally, and by fine amounting to about a hundred and twenty pounds sterling; which sum, together with the expenses incurred in the dispute, is levied inexorably on the real property of the father or mother, should the fugitive possess none in his own right. The punishments of desertion are, 1st, death: 2d, penance of the ball, (*la peine du boulet*); and 3d, public or hard labour. These, however, are

only a small portion of the pains and penalties devised in the book before us, by the inexorable tyrant for the unhappy people who have the curse to live under the weight of his iron rod. And yet they submit—and the despot has found this instrument of unparalleled violence, fix him immovably on his throne, instead of hurling him from it, a martyr to his own ambition and love of blood.

"La Voix de la Nature sur l'Origine des Gouvernemens, &c."

"The Voice of Nature on the Origin of Governments; in which is developed the Origin of Societies, of Inequalities of Station," &c. 2 vols. 8vo. This work has had a considerable sale on the continent; but one of the articles it contains, entitled *the Usurper*, has so much displeased the French government, that it has been rigorously prohibited; in consequence of which, a second edition is now about to appear in our own country; and as we shall undoubtedly have it transfused into our own tongue in a short time, we shall only announce it at present.

"Application de la Theorie de la Legislation Penale, ou Code de la Sûreté, &c." "Application of the Theory of Penal Legislation: or Code of Public and Private Security, founded on the Rules of Universal Morality, or the Right of Nations, on the foundation of Societies, and on their private Rights, in the present State of Civilization: drawn up for the States of his Majesty, the King of Bavaria: dedicated to his Majesty, and printed by his authority. By Scipio Bexon, King's Commissary, Judge of Peace, Military Accuser, Public Accuser, &c." folio. Paris. This work is intended to exhibit a complete set of penal enactments, and of regulations,

lations, or enactments of police: together with such elucidations of the general principles of law, as may show the reasons of the several enactments proposed, and afford the instruction most necessary to esteem justly what has here been performed. The king of Bavaria is well-known to be a perpetual reformer: he was at work upon this subject during peace; and he continues at it still. His plan, however, does not seem to be a bad one, if the process of reforming must go on. For he appears to have employed a variety of political philosophers to draw up separate reports for him, out of which he intends to select that which he esteems the best. The proposed code before us is one of these, and is well entitled to his attention.

“*Lettres et Pensées du Maréchal Prince de Ligne, &c.*” “Letters and Thoughts of Marshal the Prince de Ligne. Published by the Baroness de Staël Holstein: containing original anecdotes of Joseph II. Catherine II. Frederic the Great, Rousseau, Voltaire, &c. and interesting remarks on the Turks.” 2 vols. 12mo. The only historical events which these letters elucidate are the journey of Catherine II. to the Crimea in 1787, and the campaign in which Russia and Austria were jointly engaged against the Turks in 1788: but they abound with anecdotes, traits of character, observations and sentiments worthy of the deepest study, and which cannot fail to impress every reader with respect and esteem for the author.

“*Memoires Militaires, Historiques, et Politiques de Rochambeau, &c.*” “Military, Historical and Political Memoirs of Rochambeau, Senior Marshal of France, and Grand Officer in the Legion of

Honour.” 2 vols. 8vo. Paris. The subject of these memoirs, who appears to have been still living when they were published (towards the close of 1808), has borne an active and honourable part in the wars which have distracted Europe from the year 1741, to the commencement of the French revolution; and the memoirs before us extend from the former period, to the termination of the last campaign of the French in Poland. The narrative contains less of that metaphorical inflation, and tinsel glitter, which so generally disgrace the works of the French press. It appears scrupulously to adhere to truth in its details; we meet with no extravagant adulation offered up to Bonaparte, and as little prejudice and partiality, as we may reasonably expect from an eye-witness and agent in the scenes described.

“*Histoire de l'Anarchie de Pologne, et du Démembrement de cette Republique.*” “History of the Anarchy of Poland, and of the Dismemberment of that Republic: by C. L. Rulhiere.” 4 vols. 8vo. M. Rulhiere was secretary to the French ambassador at St. Petersburg, in 1765, where he drew up a minute and accurate account of the singular revolution which had recently placed Catherine upon the throne of her desposed husband. The manuscript was privately circulated: a rumour of its existence reached the ears of the empress, who made use equally of persuasion and threats to obtain its suppression, but in vain. The author, however, to oblige her, consented that it should not appear till after her death: a promise which was literally complied with. In effect, the author himself has been dead for 19 years, and this work did not make its appearance till six years after

after his decease. The misfortunes of Poland, which constitute the subject of the work before us, form also, of course, a posthumous production: it was drawn up as a book of instruction for the Dauphin, but was never quite finished by the author; various chasms being left which the editors have been obliged to fill up in the best manner they could. It contains, however, much interesting information, and is, upon the whole, of no ordinary value.

“*Tableau Historique de la Formation des differens Etats, &c.*” “*Historic Sketch of the Formation of the various States which have been established since the fall of the Roman Empire to the present Day, &c.*: by J. Berjaud.” 8vo. There is much merit in this book comprized in a short space. The sketch is preceded by a cursory view of the principal revolutions which have taken place on the old continent; an inquiry into the causes of the first two changes in the dynasty of France; an analytical account of the States-general, and reflections upon chivalry, tournaments, duels, and crusades.

“*Voyage de Dentrecasteaux, envoyé à la Recherche de la Péyrouse, publié, &c.*” “*Voyage of Dentrecasteaux, in quest of la Peyrouse, published by order of his Majesty the Emperor and King, &c. digested by M. de Rossel.*” 2 vols. 4to. This *digested* voyage is drawn up from the papers and other documents by M. Dentrecasteaux, upon his decease, during the course of the voyage. They first fell successively into possession of Captain Huon, and Captain d'Auribeau, engaged in the same expedition; and upon the death of both these, M. Rossel, at first lieutenant de vaisseau, took the command as

senior officer, just as the voyage terminated. This termination was an unfortunate one: they had searched every course in which it appeared likely to them that la Peyrouse might be traced; and having searched in vain, were returning home, when at the Dutch settlement of Surabaya, on the eastern coast of Java, they had the mortification to learn the unfortunate situation of their country, the sanguinary proceedings of the revolutionists, the massacre of the king, and the war with England. In consequence of this intelligence, the crew divided into two parties; the one espousing the royal, and the other the republican side, the voyage was declared to be at an end, and both parties made the best of their way to Europe: both parties, however, were taken by English ships; the papers and all the documents were deposited in the admiralty; and M. Rossel, who was at that time a royalist, accepted an offer made him by Lord Spencer of employment in the hydrographical department of that office, in which situation he continued till the passing of the decree which allowed the return of emigrants to France, when he quitted England for his native country. This *digested* account, does not in every respect agree with M. Dentrecasteaux's original, which is still in England: but upon the whole, the variations are not numerous: yet the work is heavily written, and contains less information than we should have supposed.

“*Voyages à Peking, Manille, et l'Isle de France, faits dans l'intervalle des Années 1784 à 1801. Par M. de Guignes, &c.*” “*Voyages to Peking, the Manillas, and Isle of France, made between the Years 1784 and 1801: by M. de Guignes,*

Guignes, French resident in China, &c." 3 vols. 8vo. Paris: with a folio atlas. M. de Guignes is the son of the very learned and celebrated author of the Chinese articles, published under his name in the "Memoires de l'Academie des Inscriptions;" and though without any pretensions to the profound literature of his father, he appears to be a man of a clear intellect, and an enterprising spirit. It was in the Dutch embassy, under M. Titsingh, whose deputy was M. Van Braam, that the present writer travelled through China, having obtained leave to accompany the Dutch ambassador in the capacity of secretary, and assistant interpreter. The work before us, or rather that part of it which relates to China, and which comprizes nearly the whole, is divided into three parts. 1. Sketch of the Ancient History of China. 2. Journey to Peking, and return thence. 3. Observations on the Chinese. M. de Guignes's work is written in a far more animated and popular style than Van Braam's; but neither of them add much to the accounts we have of late received by Lord Macartney, Sir George Staunton, and Mr. Barlow. The present volumes are miserably deficient in the natural history and productions of the country.

"Voyage de Decouvertes aux Terres Australes," &c. "Voyage of Discovery to the South Seas, executed by order of his Majesty the French Emperor, by the corvettes le Geographe, le Naturaliste, and the Casuarina Galley, during the years 1800-1-2-3, and 4. Published agreeably to an Imperial decree issued during the administration of M. Champagny. By J. M. Peron, Naturalist on the Expedi-

tion, Member of the Institute," &c. Vol. I. 4to. with an Atlas. Printed at the Imperial Press, 1808. This is a magnificent work, drawn up with candour, big with information, and sumptuously illustrated with coloured prints. We only announce it, however, at present; as we shall have occasion to return to it, when we have received the remainder; the first volume only having yet reached this country.

"Recit Historique de la Campagne de Buonaparte en Italie," &c. "Historical Account of the Campaign of Buonaparte in Italy, in the years 1796 and 1797: by an eyewitness." This is printed anonymously, and without a publisher's name. The author affects to depreciate the military talents of Buonaparte, and attempts to prove that he is more indebted for his success to artifice and accident, than to wisdom and sagacity. He advances too far, however, in affirming that *any* general placed in the same circumstances, and having the disposal of the same means, would have done as much or more than Napoleon the Great.

"L'Honneur Francois," &c. "An Account of such Personages as have contributed to the honour of the French name from 1809 to the present period." 2 vols. 8vo. The names are catalogued with a few brief anecdotes of the more eminent, or celebrated.

"Histoire des deux dernier Rois de la Maison de Stuart," &c. "History of the two last Kings of the House of Stuart: by C. J. Fox." The translator has concealed his name, and does not appear to be properly qualified for his task. Many passages in Mr. Fox's work, are here totally suppressed, as breathing an air of too much independence,

pendence, and abhorrence of all tyranny, and many have not been properly understood.

“Geschichte der drey letzten Jahrhunderte.” “History of the last three Centuries: by J. G. Eickhorn.” 6 vols. 8vo. This work, like most others of M. Eickhorn, is an honour to the German press. It is designed as a continuation of his “Geschichte der Cultur,” “History of Civilization,” published in two volumes octavo in 1799, and tracing the history of European *culture* from the darkest period of the middle ages, the first progress of returning literature and illumination, to the dawn of the reformation. The present work is divided into three periods: the first from 1100 to 1450, from the very midnight of the dark ages, to the invention of printing; which, however, is only introductory to the other two: the second, from 1450, to 1650, from the invention of printing, to the establishment of protestantism: and the third, from 1650, to 1789, the commencement of the French revolution. It possesses all the merits, and some few of the defects of the writer's preceding work.

“Preussen's Zukunft, von H. B.” “Future State of Prussia: by H. B. Berlin.” 8vo. This anonymous publication has had a wide, but we believe it will prove an ephemeral, popularity. It is apparently of French origin, though the drift is not very clear. It endeavours to soothe the people upon their loss of wealth and consequence; and to reconcile them to their present humiliation.

“C. M. Wieland's Sämmtliche Werke.” “The whole works of C. M. Wieland.” We merely announce the continuation of this elegant collection: which is now

brought down to the XLI. volume; and is still proceeding at the Leipsic press.

“Allgemeine Geographische Ephemeriden, &c.” “General Geographical Ephemerides for the Year 1808: edited by F. J. Bertact. Weimar.” This periodical work has acquired a deserved celebrity. The present volume commences with a copious memoir upon the caravans which proceed over land to India, and other eastern countries; and contains the history of the most curious of these expeditions in ancient and modern times. The map department gives us an analysis of M. Spaeth's map of Nuremberg; a map showing the changes in Poland from 1772 to 1807: M. Mennert's map of Italy and Dalmatia; and M. Gussefield's of Jutland.

“Levana: oder Erziehungslehre von Jean Paul.” “Levana: or the Doctrine of Education: by J. Paul.” 2 vols. 8vo. Brunswick. There are many good ideas distributed through this work of ethics: but in general they are involved in such a labyrinth of metaphysical obscurity, that it is difficult to find out their meaning.

From the moralists and politicians of Spain the most important work we have to announce is M. Jovellanos's justly celebrated Memoir on the Relation subsisting between Agriculture and the Laws. Even this we have not been able to obtain in the original; but have received a very good and apparently a faithful French version of it, printed about *three years ago* at St. Petersburg; under the title of “L'Identité de l'Interest generale avec l'Interest individuelle, &c.” “The Identity of General and Individual Interest: or the Free Action of Individual Interest and the real Source of

of the Riches of Nations; evinced in a Report on the Plan of an Agrarian Law, addressed to the Supreme Council of Castile, in the Name of the Economical Society of Madrid." It was for this enlightened and patriotic work that Jovellanos was cast into prison, antecedently to the irruption of the French into the peninsula. It is well known that he was liberated upon the first assertion of national liberty: we have only to wish that his political counsels, both before and after, had been followed as closely as they deserved to be.

"Atlante Español, o Descripción general de todo al regno de España." "Spanish Atlas: or a General Description of the whole Kingdom of Spain." 14 vols. 8vo. This is a very full and useful work for the present day. The plates appear well engraved; and the graphical descriptions are clear and comprehensive.

"Papiri Diplomatici descritti ed illustrati dal' Abbate Gaetano Marini." "Diplomatic Manuscripts written on the ancient Papyrus, discovered at various periods: by Abbé Gaetano Marini, chief keeper of the Vatican Library, and Manager of the Secret Archives of the Holy See. Rome: printed at the Propaganda press." No man was ever better qualified for such a work, than the celebrated antiquarian before us: yet it appears to us, that his time has not been rewarded as it ought to have been. The work contains a hundred and twenty-seven diplomatic papyri, consisting of papal bulls, acts of sovereign princes, and papers respecting sales of property. It may please the antiquarian, but few politicians will wade through it.

"American Annals: or, A

Chronological History of America: from its discovery in 1492 to 1806. By Abiel Holmes, D. D. Fellow of the American Academy of Arts and Sciences, &c." 2 vols. 8vo. Cambridge, (New England.) As annals of the Anglo-Americans and their politics, this work may be advantageously consulted; but beyond this it scarcely advances: we learn nothing more from it concerning native Americans, either north or south, than as they have occasionally been engaged in broils with the United States, or the antecedent British settlers: and the Spanish writers are as little consulted as if they had never existed.

"The Geographical, Natural, and Civil History of Chili: by Abbé Don J. Ignatius Molina: with Notes from the Spanish and French versions: and an Appendix, containing copious extracts from the Araucana of Don Alonzo de Ercilla. Translated from the original Italian. By an American Gentleman." 2 vols. 8vo. Middletown. This may well be used in America as a supplement to the preceding work. In truth, it contains two works of Molina, his *Storia Naturale* and his *Storia Civile*: a better writer for translation could not have been pitched upon.

"A Journal of the Voyages and Travels of a Corps of Discovery, under the command of Captain Lewis and Captain Clarke, of the United States, &c. By Patrick Gass, one of the persons employed in the expedition." Of this voyage we are daily in expectation of an official account, and we have no doubt of its interest and importance. The expedition occupied from 1804 to 1806, and extended from the mouth of the Missouri to the Pacific Ocean.

CHAPTER IV.

LITERATURE AND POLITE ARTS.

Comprising a Sketch of the Chief Productions of France, Germany, Holland, Italy, and America.

BIOGRAPHIE Moderne, ou Dictionnaire Biographique, &c." "Modern Biography: or Biographical Dictionary of all mankind, dead or alive, who have been distinguished towards the close of the eighteenth century or the beginning of the present, by their rank, their occupations, their talents, their misfortunes, their virtues, their crimes, in which the facts that concern them are narrated in the most impartial and authentic manner." This title is too extensive for the work: but the work is valuable so far as it goes; and is purposely designed to comprize an alphabetical register of the chief characters that have figured during the French revolution. It was first brought forward at Paris in 1800: there were many passages written in too free a spirit for the watchful government of the day. It was, in consequence, suppressed; and, in 1806, brought forward again, divested, to use the expression of the editor, of its *vitriolic acid*. It was still too caustic, notwithstanding all the sacrifices that had been made: the authors were punished, and the book rigidly proscribed. It was; however, republished at Leipsic, in 1809, and has at length found its way into our own country.

"Dictionnaire François et Grec Moderne." "Dictionary of the French and Modern Greek Lan-

guages. By M. Gregorios, of Thessalonica." 8vo. This very useful and important work is said to have been published at the expense of an opulent, and, certainly, highly liberal Greek merchant, who has distributed three thousand copies of it, gratuitously, among the literati of the continent. An examination of the terms, is a sufficient and obvious proof that the language of Homer, and of the Greek Testament, is very nearly the language of the Greek Isles in the present day, and that the long period of three thousand years has produced very little change in any part of it, excepting in its syntax and pronunciation, and a few familiar idioms. Almost all the words, according to the present very learned editor, have remained the same.

"Vie Privée, Politique, &c." "The Private, Political, and Military Life of Prince Henry of Prussia, Brother of Frederic II. Paris." 8vo. This is a biography of one of the greatest men produced by the last century: it has the merit of a simple though animated style, and of a lucid unaffected arrangement of facts. The anonymous author appears to tell his story without partiality, and evinces great moderation on the political subjects through which he is obliged to wade.

"Les Trois Règnes de la Nature, &c." "The three Kingdoms

doms of Nature. By J. Delille : with notes by M. Cuvier, of the National Institute, and other literary characters." 2 vols, 8vo. France has produced no such poet as Delille in the didactic department. His translation of the *Georgics* is a master-piece in the French tongue. To the classical chastity of Racine he unites a harmony and variety of cadence, which are new to French versification, and is the first poet who has succeeded in overcoming the difficulties of the Alexandrine. The poem before us is an original work, and at least possesses all the merits of *Les Jardins* and *L'Homme des Champs*. In its descriptive part it is highly animated and captivating : in its scientific range respectful, though not always declaratory of the different branches of science in their latest improvements. It is divided into eight books or cantos. The first treats of light and fire : the second of air : the third of water : the fourth of earth : the fifth of the mineral kingdom : the sixth of the vegetable : the seventh and eighth of the animal kingdom. It is impossible to approve of this arrangement ; for it is clear that the *subject* of the poem, as expressed in the title, does not commence till the poem itself is half finished, the four last books alone being devoted to the *three kingdoms of nature* ; and the preceding books being merely preliminary.

"Theatre des Auteurs du second ordre, &c." "Collection of Tragedies and Comedies as at present acted on the French stage, intended as a continuation to the Stereotype editions of Corneille, Racine, Moliere, Reynard, Crebillon, Voltaire, with biographical notices of the authors, a list of

their pieces, and the dates of their first representation." 8 vols. 12mo. Paris. This collection of the minor French dramatists is conducted with a judicious and discriminate hand, and, upon the whole, evinces a correct and elegant taste. We have the old peal rung, however, upon that precise attention to the unities which the French stage has always, more or less, affected, but especially since the tyrannical diction of Voltaire upon this subject, and his anathema upon Shakspeare, for not having attended to it, except occasionally ; and the whole English nation is accused of the grossest barbarism and imbecility on this very account. A mystery like this, says the editor, can only be explained by referring to the weakness of the heart : it is in the humiliation of their national pride, it is from the vexation of their being left at such a distance behind us, that they can never expect to become our rivals : it is this despair and consciousness of their inferiority, which has induced them to seek for consolation, by inventing frivolous systems, against which their reason must every moment revolt. The work contains about thirty comedies, which are performing on the French stage, at the present hour, with great celebrity. It is stereotyped in Didot's best manner.

"Artaxerxe, &c." "Artaxerxes : a Tragedy in five acts, by M. Delrieu." Considering what a host of rivals M. Delrieu had to oppose when he had once summoned up courage enough to make choice of this portion of ancient history for his subject, we think he has succeeded very creditably : for it has been already treated

treated in the same way by Magnon in 1645, by Boyer in 1682, by Deschamps in 1721, by Barray in 1765, by Lemierre in 1766, independently of Crebillon's justly celebrated *Xerxes*, which touches upon the same ground-plot. The author appears highly pleased with himself, and his own success; but his self-opinion is rather too exalted in inducing him to believe, as he openly avows he does, that his tragedy has more general excellence than those of either Lemierre or Crebillon. Bonaparte, however, has been so much satisfied with its merit as to have allowed him a pension of 2,000 francs.

The chief French novels that have made their appearance in the course of the period before us, are from the indefatigable pen of Mad. Cottin; several of whose works of this kind are now reprinted in our own country; we have, especially, to notice her "*Amelia Mansfield*," in 3 vols. 12mo. "*Mathilde*;" "*Matilda, or Memoirs drawn from the History of the Crusades*," 4 vols. and "*Malvine*," to which last are prefixed a few *Memoirs of the Author's Life*. Besides these we have to announce Mad. Herberster's "*Souterrain*." "*The Cavern: or the Two Sisters*." Mad. Genlis' "*Alphonso*;" "*Alphonso; or the Natural Son*:" 3 vols. and, a translation from the German of Kotzebue's *Leontina of Blendheim*.

From the German press we see a new edition of Klopstock's whole Works is proceeding progressively, printed, like the last, at Leipsic, and in a form not essentially different. So far as we have been able to collate it with the last (the edition of 1798) we do not find any new matter offered.

"*Philodemus von der Music*,

&c." "*A Treatise on Music: by Philodemus*." This is a very curious work on various accounts. It is an extract from the fourth book of Philodemus, translated into German by Christopher Gottlieb de Murr from one of the Greek rolls of Papyrus found in the ruins at Herculaneum, November 3, 1753: and it is the first out of the entire 1700 MSS. then discovered, that was unrolled and decyphered. Subjoined is a specimen of a hymn in the ancient Grecian music.

"*Vertheidigung des grosser Cölln*." "*Defence of the Great Cölln*." Von Cölln is a famous German traveller, who, in the narrative of his various excursions, has dealt abuse under the guise of criticism with no unsparing hand. This *defence*, as it is called, is in effect a severe satire upon him, attempted to be conducted in the burlesque manner.

"*Serie de Testi di Lingua usati a stampa*," &c. "*Series of Editions of Classical Works referred to in the Vocabularies of the Della Cruscan Academicians, with the Augmentations made to other Editions by Writers of Eminence*." This is a work of the Bassano press, the author of it is M. Gamba, who hereby undertakes the important task of instructing the collectors of books, with respect to the best editions of classical Italian works. It is prefaced by a critical and bibliographical essay that does credit to the writer's taste.

"*Life of George Washington, &c.: by Aaron Bancroft, A P S.*" This is a concise and valuable compendium of Judge Marshall's more desultory and voluminous work.

"*An Authentic Narrative of the Causes*

Causes that led to the Death of Major André, &c. By Joshua Hett Smith.' We see no reason for reviving, and especially with a severe reflection on the continental commander, a story that has long been consigned to oblivion.

"The Columbiad: a Poem.

By Joel Barlow." "Washington: or Liberty Restored: a Poem, in ten books. By Thomas Northmore." These are both very favourable specimens of epic talents, and have deservedly obtained much popularity in America.

FINIS.

